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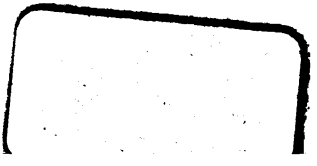

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M, DCCC, XVIII.

With an APPENDIX.

2311

" *Nescio quo modo plerique errare malunt, eamque sententiam quam adamaverunt pugnacissimè defendere, quàm sine pertinaciâ quid constantissimè dicatur exquirere.*"
CICERO, *Academic.* II. 3.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXXVI.

Page 99. l. 4. from bottom, for ‘ then,’ read *than*.
112. l. 14. insert double quotation-commas before *utriusque*.
229. l. 5. from bottom, insert a semicolon after ‘ island.’
284. l. 24. for ‘ æpnu’ read pæpnu.
384. l. 2. from bottom, after ‘ united,’ put a semicolon instead of a comma.
448. l. 2. put a comma after ‘ opulent.’

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1818.

ART. I. *Description of the Character, Manners, and Customs of the People of India;* and of their Institutions, Religious and Civil. By the Abbé J. A. Dubois, Missionary in the Mysore. Translated from the French Manuscript. 4to. pp. 590. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

IF the advertisement prefixed to this volume by the anonymous translator may be implicitly trusted, the Abbé Dubois was resident in Europe at the beginning of the French Revolution, but, considering himself as endangered by the atrocious proceedings which the jacobin-authorities of France were directing against the clergy, he determined to withdraw from a scene of massacre, and to seek a new field of pious and benevolent exertion among the mild and pacific Hindoos. With the respectable character of a Catholic missionary, he went to the Mysore, and assumed the garb and imitated the habits of the people; whose language he acquired with great proficiency, and among whom he appeared more as an observer than as an active teacher: behaving, indeed, like one who wished to acquire their religion rather than one who desired to superinduce his own. The meekness, privation, probity, and kindness, which distinguished his mode of living, and its total dissimilarity from that of the military Europeans, obtained for him an extraordinary degree of confidence; in so much that he found himself insensibly received on the footing of a sacred character, and with that dutiful hospitality which is awarded to the Brahmanical order. Wherever he went, the natives offered to supply all his wants; and the very priests seem almost to have acknowleged him as one of their own fraternity. In these circumstances, he gained an unusually complete knowlege of the casts, habits, notions, and religious literature of the Indian peninsula; and he drew up in the French language a memoir, which Sir James Mackintosh is here said to have described as the most comprehensive and minute account extant in any European language of the manners of the Hindoos.

This French manuscript having been communicated in 1806 to Colonel Mark Wilks, then acting President at Mysore, he consulted with several English gentlemen, and determined to purchase it on account of the East-India Company. The price on which they agreed was two thousand pagodas; which, it was ascertained, would be acceptable to the Abbé, who had not either the means or the prospect of publication; and his information, it was presumed, was likely to aid the servants of the British government, in often conducting themselves more in unison with the customs and prejudices of the natives. The work was accordingly surrendered by the author, and brought to England; where it remained a considerable time in the Company's library, accessible to the curious, until the beginning of the year 1817, when a translation was commenced under the sanction of the Court of Directors. Of this translation, now completed, and published, we have to give some account.

In the preliminary matter, an evident chronological error occurs. The Abbé Dubois, in his own preface, (page 15.) speaks of his having resided between seventeen and eighteen years among the people whom he has described. Now his manuscript was delivered up in 1806, and acquired in 1807 by the Governor in Council at Fort Saint George, which appears from an official dispatch. The Abbé, therefore, according to his own account, must have arrived in India in 1789, in order to have been resident there seventeen years in 1806; and in this case he did not escape 'from one of the fusillades of the French Revolution,' which is asserted in the preliminary advertisement, because no such danger existed in France at that period. Most probably he originally quitted Europe with the deliberate purpose of studying the language and people of Mysore, in order to collect the information requisite to prepare the success of future missions. Such biographical facts, however, his countrymen can best ascertain.

For the work of a Catholic priest, the preface, if not interpolated, is singularly liberal; in proof of which we will quote one period. (P. xiv.)

'The spirit of justice and of prudence with which the British nation rules the people of India who have become *its* subjects, and particularly the inviolable respect which *she* has constantly shown for the customs and prejudices, civil and religious, which are inherent in every district and cast, together with the impartial protection which she extends alike to the feeble and the strong, to the Brahman and the Paria, to the Christian, the Mahometan, and the Pagan, have more exalted her name and established her power in the east, than even her victories and her extensive conquests.'

The

The pronoun *its* should have been altered into the pronoun *her*, as the word *nation* is made feminine in the rest of the sentence: but such slips of the translator do not often occur.

The volume itself is divided into three parts, or books, of which the first undertakes a General View of Society in India. The twelve subordinate chapters successively treat of the Division and Subdivision of Casts, and the Distinction between Right Hand and Left; — the Advantages resulting from the Division of Cast; — Expulsion from a Cast; — Restoration to a Cast; — the original Founders of Brahmanism; — the different Kinds of Brahmans; — the Sects of Vishnu and Siva; — the Gurus, or Priests; — the Purohitas, or Masters of Ceremonies; — the Mantras, or Forms of Prayer; — the Rules prescribed to Brahman Women when brought to bed.

Among the various ceremonies here detailed, a great many are innocently superstitious; and, except in occasioning much needless trouble to the observer of them, they cause no public or social inconvenience: but several rites are also enjoined which interfere much with the possibility of intercourse and the convenience of domestic life, and which aim at transferring to corporeal purity a praise and a reverence that ought to be reserved for moral worth. Such rites it is surely desirable to bring into gradual disuse; and we were much satisfied to observe that some native writers among the Hindoos are willing to co-operate in so expedient a change. From the fifth chapter, on the Antiquity and Origin of the Casts, we will make a short extract, which shews that an inward contempt for their own ritual is progressively spreading among the Hindoos. A teacher, who should venture to treat their religion as Saint Paul treated that of the Jews, leaving the creed much at rest, but encouraging an assimilation of ceremony to that of the surrounding Gentiles, might form an internal schism, favourable to the growth of a more rational and liberal system of conduct and opinion.

'Nothing in the world appears to be of greater antiquity than the casts of the Hindus and the customs which pertain to them. The ancient Greek and Latin authors, who have made mention of India, speak of those institutions as the groundwork of Hindu civilization established from time immemorial. The inviolable attachment of that people to their customs is a strong evidence of their antiquity. They are bred in the principle of invariably clinging to their customs, so that any new habit is a thing unheard of among them; any man attempting to introduce one would rouse the whole nation and would be proscribed as a dangerous innovator. So difficult would it be, that I believe it has never yet entered into the imagination of any intelligent Hindu.

Every thing relating to their customs proceeds evenly, and is transacted with inflexible uniformity, and the minutest particulars are treated as of the utmost importance; because they have been taught that it is by the strict nicety with which small matters are attended to that the most momentous concerns are sustained. Accordingly there is no nation on the earth that can boast of having kept up for so long a time its domestic rules and customs without any perceptible change.

'Some modern philosophical writers among them, such as Vemana, who has written his performance in the language of Telingana; and Tiruvaluven who has written his in the Tamul, are distinguished highly, and have made the Hindu customs the subject of their satire, throwing the sharpest ridicule upon the religion and habits of the country. But while these authors are exercising all their skill and raillery in ridiculing the religious ceremonies established in the nation, they never fail to recommend the practice of them, and are strictly attentive to it themselves. The works of the two authors I have named are always read and quoted with delight by all intelligent Hindus, although there be not a page in their writings that does not contain satirical reflections aimed at their gods and the worship and rites of the country.

'One of the most artful contrivances made use of by the early Hindus for preserving their customs, has been that of clothing them with ceremonies, which make a strong impression on the senses, and communicate something holy to the practice. These ceremonies are rigorously observed. It is never permitted to any one to treat them as matters of form which may be practised or omitted at pleasure. The omission of any, even of the least important, would not be allowed to pass unpunished.'

If these native satirical writings, of which a farther account is given at page 162., were to be multiplied by the printing-press; — if similar good-humoured attacks were tolerated on the theatre of Calcutta; — if, in new novels and books of amusement, those Indian usages were especially exposed to the test of ridicule and argument, which most interfere with European notions of cleanliness and convenience; — it is probable that a fashionable sect of liberalists might be called into activity, who would desist from several of those practices which more immediately oppose the interchange of hospitality and good neighbourhood with persons of a foreign faith. The horror of the Hindoos for those who eat beef is certainly somewhat dangerous to English popularity; to slaughter a cow for food being in their eyes an act of deicide. An aversion to the contact of leather is another most inconvenient prejudice: since the servant, who cleans an European master's boots, becomes an outcast, and is punished more severely than if he had picked his pocket.

Part II. treats very diffusely of the *four* stages in life of the Brahmans, and is subdivided into thirty-nine chapters, which

which exhaust the punctilious ceremonial law of that order. First is described the state of *Brahmachari*, or pupil, the conduct expected from him, the rights acquired by receiving the triple cord, the duty of shunning external and internal defilement of the body, and every thing that defiles the soul. — Secondly, comes the stage of a Brahman's life called *Grihastha*; viz. when he marries and is made a father. Twenty chapters are allotted to the detail of the duties of this condition; with the triple prayers, the fasts and festivals, the prohibited food, the nocturnal sacrifices, the avocations of the order, the religious tolerance and political bigotry remarkable in it, their contempt for strangers, their manners, language, dress, houses, rules of politeness, visits, presents, and decorations. The matters relating to the women occupy four chapters; and adoption, partition of property, literature, epistolary forms, hand-writing, death, and obsequies, have seven separate sections. — The third stage of Brahmanical life, called *Vanaprastha*, is that in which a married couple, satiated with this world and its vanities, determine to withdraw into the desert and live in frugal seclusion: its rules extend through eight chapters. — The fourth stage of Brahmanical life, called *Sannyasi*, occurs when a widower of this order turns hermit, and devotes himself to solitary contemplation. Three chapters comprize its rules. — With the pupil, and with the retired Brahman, Europeans have little to do; it is chiefly in the second, or *Grihastha* stage, that it imports them to be conversant with the native usages.

The difficulties of dining with a Hindoo will be apparent from the following small portion of the code of the repast:

'Leather and every kind of skin, except those of the tyger and the antelope, are held to be very impure. They must never touch with their hands the pantoufles and sandals which they wear on their feet. A person who rides on horseback must have some stuff to cover the saddle, the bridle, and stirrup-leathers, to avoid all contact with skin. The most disagreeable of all European fashions in their eyes is that of boots and gloves; and they hold a man to be extremely unrefined who does not shrink to touch the slough of a carcase.

'A Brahman who is particular in his delicacy must attend also to what he treads upon. It would cost him a washing if he should touch a bone with his foot, or a broken pot, a bit of rag, or a leaf from which one had been eating. He must likewise be careful where he sits down. Some devotees always carry their seat with them, that is a tyger's or antelope's skin, which are always held pure. Some are contented with a mat: the rich take a carpet; but one may even squat on the ground without defilement, provided it be newly rubbed over with cow-dung. This last specific

is also used as a daily purification of the Hindu houses from the defilement occasioned by comers and goers. When thus applied, diluted with water, it has the farther advantage of destroying the insects which would otherwise annoy them.

'Their mode of eating their meals also requires much circumspection and gravity. However numerous the company may be, it would be unpolite to address conversation to any person during dinner. They eat in silence, and no conversation begins till they have ended the repast and washed their hands and mouths. The left hand, on this occasion, as we noticed when speaking of the Grihastha Brahmans, must not be employed, unless to hold the vessel of water from which they drink. This last operation is performed not by applying the vessel to the lips, but by pouring the water from on high into the mouth. This is the Hindu practice universally; and it would be considered a piece of gross impropriety to drink as we do by touching the vessel with our lips. In eating, great care must be taken that nothing drops upon the plate, or on the leaf when one is eating apart. If a single grain of rice should fall, his meal would be at an end; else he must cast away the plate so defiled, and bring another, with a fresh supply of food, in its place.

'The reason of this extreme fastidiousness is founded on the Hindu notion that the saliva is the most filthy and impure secretion that proceeds from the body, and consequently held in the utmost horror. It is therefore never permitted to any one to spit within doors. If he has occasion, he must go out.

'The fragments of the repast are given neither to the domestics nor to the poor, (unless they be Pariahs, who accommodate themselves to any thing,) but are cast to the crows or dogs. The poor are served with alms of boiled rice in a proper state, untouched by any one. But they who follow the usages of their cast, and who must not eat with those who give them the alms, receive it raw; and it is in this state only that Brahmans will take it from persons of another cast.

'They rarely eat their food from plates; and when they do so, it is only at home. It would be indecorous to use them elsewhere in public. The rice and other articles are served on bits of Banana leaf or some other leaves sewed very neatly together. They serve but once, and when they have done eating they take them to a distant place and throw them away. To offer a Brahman any thing to eat on a metal or porcelain plate which others had used, however well it may have been washed, would be considered as the grossest affront.

'With the same feeling, they will use neither spoon nor fork when they eat; and they are astonished how any one, after having once applied them to their mouths and infected them with saliva, should venture to repeat it a second time. When they eat any thing dry, they throw it into their mouth, so as that the fingers may not approach the lips.

'A European once gave a letter of introduction to a Brahman who had come from a great distance to receive it; and having sealed

sealed it with a wafer, which he moistened by putting it on his tongue, the Brahman who observed this, would not touch the letter, and chose rather to forego any advantage he could derive from the recommendation than to carry a thing so polluted.

'The touch of most animals, particularly that of a dog, is a stain to the person of a Brahman. It is amusing to see the methods they take to shun the touch of one, when they see it approaching. If the dog should actually come in contact with them, they would be obliged instantly to plunge into the water and wash all their clothes in order to get free of such a stain.

'The dog, nevertheless, is one of the divinities that the Hindus pay honour to, under the name of *Vahira* or *Bhairava*; and the image of it may be seen in several of their temples.'

The Abbé, however, enters much into the spirit of all these things, and at p. 188. breaks into a declamation justificatory of the Hindoos, which seems to be written with the sympathies of an honest convert to their observances. Much of the matter scattered in this second part of the work was already known from Sir William Jones's translation of the *Institutes of Menu*, and from Father Bartolomeo's *Systema Brahmanicum*: but still it is very useful to give a wider circulation to the knowlege of these peculiarities: politeness will be assisted in avoiding to offend, and philosophy will be prepared for devising the means of reform. In general, it may be observed that the Brahmanical ritual is a mere record of the natural behaviour of a gentleman in the circumstances supposed; a code of politeness extending to the most trivial and daily actions: — but some practices are enjoined that have now evidently survived the associations of idea on which they were originally founded. When the human monkey first quitted the forests, and twisted huts of bamboo beside the Indus, the left hand was used for certain *necessary* bodily purposes, and became in consequence the unclean, the ignoble hand, which polluted the food or any thing else that it touched. After the use of leaves of trees or of paper had been introduced, and when gloves were adopted as a regular covering of the hand, it became practicable to keep the left hand habitually clean as well as the right; and there was no longer any occasion to persist in those *sinister* forbearances, which are so repeatedly and strenuously commanded in the Brahmanical ritual. A sacred distinction between right hand and left seems to have been known to Jonah, chap. iv. 11. Half of the superstitious practices enjoined in the Hindoo sacred books are injunctions of this kind, which have outlived their motive. — Before the art of tanning leather was invented, it may in like manner have been necessary to prohibit the touch of skins or carrion, as offensive to the nostrils of others,

and dangerous to the health of the individual: but the Hindoo casuist has unfortunately not arisen, who can prove to the satisfaction of a Brahman that tannine is a purifying drug, which, not less than clarified butter, is a remedy for defilement. Goethe justly observes that every prevailing usage must have originated in some strong reason; but, by not recording the motive as well as the symbol, we often prolong practices which have ceased to be useful or significant. If all commentators of works respecting good-breeding, — and in fact these Brahmanical books in many of their details resemble Lord Chesterfield's Letters, — were uniformly to assign the presumed purpose of every command, those injunctions for which no adequate justification could any longer be devised would sink into comparative neglect, and be deemed of doubtful orthodoxy. The petty ritual of personal elegance, — the religion of the toilette, — constitutes the mass of Brahmanical precept. To lose cast, however formidable this excommunication has become, was originally but a revocable sort of dishonour, not unlike the being "sent to Coventry." When gentlemen combined to become a privileged class, the recipe which made a gentleman acquired the solemnity of law; and thus the regulations, enacted in the first instance for youths at their colleges, have been introduced into the code of the magistrate. The line which separates manners from morals is not defined in antient languages; a feeling of impropriety is alike excited by an awkwardness or a sin; and even in Leviticus, (c. v.) the person who has touched a carcase, or who has taken a criminal oath, is ordered to make atonement by the same offering. As we have gradually modified the relative practical weight of the precepts in our own sacred books, by resting on the authority of later prophets, so will the Hindoos: — refinement every where produces a like effect. By degrees, the European or Paranquay cast, as the natives begin to call us, will be perceived to have acquired a very permanent ascendancy in Hindostan; and the usages of this sovereign class will insensibly be considered as the more genteel and fashionable. The patronage of government will also be tempted to lean towards the plastic and the accommodating, less from system than from obvious motives of convenience. Then the ambitious, the young, and the excellent among the Brahmans will themselves set examples of imitating European customs; and they will teach their countrymen to estimate native formalities at a more natural but reduced value. At present, such reforms are but feebly desired, yet they begin to gain a footing, as the following anecdote will shew:

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'The women are so accustomed to the austere manners of their husbands, that they would disapprove a contrary behaviour, and despise their husbands if they treated them with easy familiarity. I have seen a wife in a rage with her husband for talking with her in an easy strain. "His behaviour covers me with shame," quoth she, "and I dare no longer shew my face. Such conduct amongst us was never seen till now. Is he become a * Paranquay, and does he suppose me to be a woman of that cast?" '

Part III. of this work, treating of religion, is divided into eleven chapters, concerning the Trimurti, or Trinity; — the principal Festivals; — the Temples, and the Ceremonies practised there; — the favourite Divinities; — the Worship of Animals, and of Bhutas, or Devils; — the Metempsychosis; — the Mythological Fables; — and other Tales of the Hindoos. Some irrelevant dissertations intervene concerning the Pariahs, or outcasts, the administration of justce, and the military system.

In this series of chapters, we are taught to believe that polytheism, though nominally the public religion of Hindostan, is in fact confined to the inferior or vulgar classes; that an esoteric doctrine, which resolves into allegory the mythological stories of the gods, is systematically diffused throughout the Brahmanical order, is inculcated at their very universities, and is avowed in their private books of instruction; and that this esoteric doctrine is pantheism. To the universe, to the great whole, they give the name of God; and they worship its elementary parts under the character of Brahma, or earth, Vishnu, or water, and Siva, or fire; ascribing to the first a creative, to the second a vivifying or preserving power, and to the third a merely destructive energy. Like the followers of Buddha, the Brahmans conceive that it is to amuse and divert himself with the pleasures of infancy that God creates his own substance into children, while at the same time he is enjoying the various gratifications of maturity and age. — God is horse, dog, insect, man, or in short whatever he wishes to be; his desire extends to each living creature, and varies with the instinct of each individual; he is delighted by enjoying what is adapted to the particular gratification of each, and even by the conflicts subsisting between them. According to this system, the One God of the Brahmanical order is self-subsistent, uncreated, indestructible, everlasting, and moreover omnipresent; since, wherever any thing is, he is. What-

'* Paranquay is a term of reproach, by which they designate the Europeans. It is derived from the word *Frank franquy;* and was introduced into India by the Moors.'

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ever is perceived and known is perceived in him, through him, and by him; he is therefore omniscient; and the harmony of the universe, throughout which each is adapted to all, proves that the presiding mind is also collectively intelligent, and not exclusively intent on the illusions of individuality. From the substance of God, all individuality proceeds; he is the Father of all; and into his substance all individuality is successively re-absorbed. In short, the Brahmanical Supreme Being is well described in the words of Pope:

> " All are but parts of one stupendous whole,
> Whose body Nature is, and God the soul:
> That, chang'd through all, and yet in all the same,
> Great in the earth as in th' æthereal frame,
> Warms in the sun, refreshes in the breeze,
> Glows in the stars, and blossoms in the trees;
> Lives through all life, extends through all extent,
> Spreads undivided, operates unspent."

The oriental theology has this merit, that by the very definition of God his existence is undeniable; it is therefore a system absolutely incompatible with atheism, though not with polytheism, or with subordinate objects of worship. Indeed the Brahmans do not seem to forbid the worship of any thing: not only to gods personifying the powers of nature, not only to Bhutas, or disembodied spirits, do they address offerings and ceremonies, but even to inanimate matters, such as the utensils of the artisan or the furniture of the kitchen. —Concerning future existence, their favourite doctrine is metempsychosis; they infer that any portion of the divine mind, or soul of the universe, which has ceased to vivify any one animal, will soon be employed to vivify another; and they threaten to their enemies a resurrection in the form of some unclean creature: while to their own order they announce, as the highest beatitude, a complete re-absorption into the divine nature, and a re-union with the divine mind. In this philosophy, a great resemblance may be traced to the doctrines of the Alexandrian Platonists, of Philo, and of the son of Sirach; whence it seems probable that from Babylon, as a common centre, radiated both to Benares and to Alexandria the system of the pantheists.

The Euterpe of Herodotus deserves to be assiduously compared with the description of the Abbé Dubois. It will immediately be apparent that Ægypt was originally peopled by some oriental race of men, to whom the Brahmanical institutions were already communicated. Whether these early colonists

colonists came from Guzurat, up the Red Sea, and thence to the Memphian mouth of the Nile, cannot now be historically ascertained: but so great a resemblance of arbitrary institution is impossible without a common origin. If Herodotus reckons *seven* casts, be it observed that he separates needlessly into two the ox-herdsmen and the swine-herdsmen; and that he makes two superfluous casts of the interpreters and pilots, whereas these were only persons who, for the sake of facilitating intercourse with strangers, were privileged against being outcasts in circumstances which would have condemned other residents to degradation. Hence the division of Herodotus is in fact into priests or Brahmans, soldiers or Chatriyas, artisans or Vaisyas, graziers or Sudras; and all the minor superstitions, the veneration for the cow, the preference for rice, the use of linen-drawers, the hereditary occupations, the river-worship, the various purifications by ablution after having touched a carcase or any such things, and the veneration of the phallos, seem described by both writers from one original. There are however in Hindostan, as in Egypt, three distinct stages of discipline, or institution, to be observed: the first, in which polytheism was the sincere religion both of people and of priest; the second, after an esoteric doctrine had been introduced among the priesthood by the pupils of pantheism; and the third, after the power of government had been wrested from the Brahmanical order, and had compelled the priesthood to attempt the accomplishment by interior excommunication, by proclaiming loss of cast, of that which in earlier times the punishment of the magistrate accomplished directly. From various passages in the Institutes of Menu, it may be conjectured that an esoteric pantheism was first introduced by priests of the fire-worshippers, who at some specific period intruded themselves into the Brahmanical church, no doubt under the protection of the Parthian sovereigns, especially perhaps under that of Darius Hystaspes. It is unfortunate that no trustworthy history remains of this doctrinal revolution.

The second and third parts of the Abbé Dubois' work seem to have been written before the first, which is an epitome or condensation of them. They keep in view a French public, and solicitously indicate those prejudices of the Hindoos which could best be directed against Englishmen, and followed by Frenchmen: but, in the first part, all nationality has been laid down at the feet of our East-India Company. Many needless repetitions may be detected; so many, that an abridgement of the book will probably be undertaken at Calcutta, and finally supersede the original.

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As a commentary on the Institutes of Menu, as an account of the state of practice resulting from the precepts there collected, the dissertation is peculiarly interesting: few observances are here detailed which cannot be traced to some specific command in that consecrated book; and few commands occur in it which have not perpetuated their traces in the living manners of the country. We are here, to borrow the words of Sir William Jones, called to contemplate a system of despotism and priestcraft, both indeed limited by law, but artfully conspiring to give mutual support, though with mutual checks. It is filled with strange conceits in metaphysics and natural philosophy, with idle superstitions, and with a scheme of theology most obscurely figurative and consequently liable to dangerous misconception. It abounds with minute and childish formalities, with ceremonies generally absurd and often ridiculous; the punishments are partial and fanciful, for some crimes dreadfully cruel, for others reprehensibly slight; and the very morals, though rigid enough on the whole, are in one or two instances (as in the case of light oaths, and of pious perjury,) unaccountably relaxed. Nevertheless, a spirit of sublime devotion, of benevolence to mankind, and of amiable tenderness to all sentient creatures, pervades the whole discipline; proving its founders to have adored, not the visible material sun, but that divine and incomparably greater light, (to use the most venerable text in the Indian scripture,) "which illumines all, delights all, from which all proceed, to which all must return, and which alone can irradiate our intellects."

ART. II. *Memoirs of the Wernerian Natural History Society*, Vol. II. Part II. For the Years 1814, 1815, 1816. With Nine Engravings. 8vo. pp. 455. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

IN the seventy-seventh volume of our New Series, (p. 113.) we shortly noticed the first part of the present volume of the Wernerian Memoirs. The second, which is before us, commences with an article on a subject now particularly attractive, viz.

On the Greenland or Polar Ice. By William Scoresby, junior, M.W.S. — We have alluded to this paper in p. 417. of our last Number, and have indeed anticipated in part our present duty respecting it, by quoting some passages from it. Mr. Scoresby's frequent visits to the polar latitudes, combined with his habits of diligent observation, have enabled him to communicate some interesting information on this topic.

topic and other collateral matters. As his memoir, however, forms only the germ of an intended publication of much greater extent, and destined to comprize a history of the progress of discoveries in the north of West and East Greenland, the natural history of the Greenland seas, an account of the northern whale and minor fisheries, &c., we forbear from farther forestalling his more detailed statements. The attention of the public will be particularly drawn to his enumeration of the difficulties which the adventurers in the expedition to the north may be supposed to encounter, and his suggestion of the means by which such difficulties may be surmounted.

From the pen of Mr. Scoresby, whose time has been devoted to the business of the whale-fishery, we cannot reasonably expect many specimens of fine writing: but, as he is preparing his work for the press, we would counsel him to submit his composition to the revision of some competent friend, who may point to such objectionable phraseology as we occasionally discover in the essay before us.

For the reason already assigned, we shall limit our extracts to the following commentary on Cowley's quaint couplet:

"As if some curious artist should devise
To make a burning-glass of ice."

'Fresh-water ice is fragile, but hard; the edges of a fractured part are frequently so keen, as to inflict a wound like glass. The homogeneous and most transparent pieces are capable of concentrating the rays of the sun, so as to produce a considerable intensity of heat. With a lump of ice, of by no means regular convexity, I have frequently burnt wood, fired gunpowder, melted lead, and lit the sailors' pipes, to their great astonishment; all of whom, who could procure the needful articles, eagerly flocked around me, for the satisfaction of smoking a pipe ignited by such extraordinary means. Their astonishment was increased, on observing, that the ice remained firm and pellucid, whilst the solar rays emerging *therefrom* were so hot, that the hand could not be kept longer in the focus than for the space of a few seconds. In the formation of these lenses, I *roughed* them with a small axe, which cut the ice tolerably smooth; I then scraped them with a knife, and polished them merely by the warmth of the hand, supporting them during the operation in a woollen glove. I once procured a piece of the purest ice, so large, that a lens of sixteen inches diameter was obtained out of it; unfortunately, however, the sun became obscured before it was completed, and never made its appearance again for a fortnight, during which time, the air being mild, the lens was spoiled.'

On the Mineralogy of the Redhead in Angus-shire. By the Rev. John Fleming, D.D. F.R.S. E. — One of the principal advan-

advantages which result from the institution of provincial societies is the accuracy of the local delineations to which they give rise, each contributor naturally selecting for the range of his inquiries the districts most within his reach. In consequence of such a commodious distribution and subdivision of labour, and the facility with which the amount of actual investigation is communicated to the public, we are warranted to indulge the pleasing expectation that, in the course of a few years, the geological and mineralogical phænomena of the whole surface of the British islands will be distinctly and correctly unfolded. Whether the topographical reports be drawn up by the disciples of the Huttonian or of the Wernerian school may now be regarded as a matter of comparative insignificance; for the language and the biases of both are perfectly understood; and the cool and candid observer can make the requisite allowances on either side.

Dr. Fleming's paper contains some valuable observations on the alluvial and flœtz strata, connected with a bold and rocky portion of coast in the neighbourhood of Aberbrothic. The strata of gravel, which bear every appearance of having been deposited in water, are not horizontal, but inclined at an angle of 24°; a phænomenon which the author ascribes to the motion of the fluid in which the suspended matters were precipitated. The principal member of the flœtz series is red sand-stone, containing a number of caves, some of which are of considerable magnitude.

'The rocks of sand-stone may be considered as forming one great bed, nearly two miles in thickness, divided into regular strata, some of these exceeding four feet, others only a few lines in thickness. These strata are divided by perpendicular rents, (or *backs* as they are termed by the quarrymen,) which run at right angles to the line of bearing, are parallel to one another, and often cause the rock to exhibit somewhat of a columnar appearance. This structure has enabled the sea to make great encroachments, and has contributed to give to the scenery its characteristic feature of boldness. When the sea undermines the base of these angular masses, they fall with a tremenduous crash, and leave the newly exposed surface of the rock a mural precipice. But it often happens, that the upper portions of the columns are too firmly wedged by the surrounding rock to allow them to be displaced, so that the inferior portions only give way, and in this case a small cave is formed, which is very speedily enlarged by the surf of an exposed and stormy coast.'

In these beds of sand-stone are found strata of slate-clay, which seldom exceed a foot in thickness, and are of a similar colour with the surrounding rock. — The next member, denominated *sand-stone conglomerate*, is composed of portions

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of granite, gneiss, mica-slate, quartz, porphyry, and horn-blend, in the form either of rounded balls or of blunt angular fragments. Appearances are exhibited by this sand-stone conglomerate, and gravel-stone, which seem to indicate the former existence of a disturbing but unknown force. Near the ruins of St. Murdoch's chapel, the sand-stone rocks are succeeded by those of trapp, including porphyry, conglomerate, and amygdaloid, which last passes into trapp-tuff.

Not satisfied with the bare intimation and description of these substances, Dr. F. mingles in his exposition some remarks of a more theoretical complexion, but of which the discussion would demand space and leisure which we cannot assign to it.

Description and Analysis of a Specimen of Native Iron found at Leadhills. By Mr. H. M. Dacosta, M.W.S.— This is the second specimen of such a rare mineral which has been found at Leadhills; and, from the manifestations which are here detailed, it seems to be iron nearly pure.

Mineralogical Observations in Galloway. By Dr. Grierson. — From Dr. G.'s observations, which are somewhat minutely recorded, we may infer that much of the granite in Galloway rests on compact gneiss, and that detached fragments of the latter are sometimes included in the granitic mass.

Lithological Observations on the Vicinity of Loch-Lomond. By Dr. Macknight. — The rocks on the margin of both sides of this lake constitute a regular series from the older mica-slate to the newer grey-wacke, including several subordinate members, and exhibiting the same features with other regions of the Highlands of Scotland, in which mica-slate is the prevailing rock. Ben-Lomond itself may be said to be composed of the latter; which, however, frequently passes into felspar-porphyry and green-stone. In this mica-slate, which affects many fantastical appearances, and is much undulated, a marked predominance of quartz occurs. The felspar-porphyry is much penetrated with horn-blend, chlorite, and crystals of pistacite, crossing one another, like the letter X. On the west side of the lake, between Tarbet and Luss, mica-slate, talcky and talck-slate, with beds of green-stone and felspar-porphyry, are still observable in the same order of relative position. Southward of Row Ardennan, the mica-slate approaches to and passes into clay-slate, and also alternates with it. The quarries of Luss and Camstradden belong to the clay-slate formation, which has been traced in so many places, skirting the Highlands from S. W. to N. E. Then appear grey-wacke, and grey-wacke with a slaty fracture, and, lastly, towards Glen-Fruin, the old red sand-stone.—

Dr.

Dr. Macknight slightly touches on the consideration of the veins and masses of pure quartz included in the principal rocks, and also on the internal irregularities of structure that are observable in the mica-slate.

Description of Ravensheugh. By the Same. — The point of coast here described had escaped the examination of Professor Jameson, in his mineralogical survey of East Lothian. It is a striking exhibition of the trapp-formation, apparently incumbent on, but in reality subordinate to, the old red sandstone.

Hints regarding the Coincidence which takes Place in the Pressure of the Atmosphere, at different Latitudes, and at nearly the same Time. — By the Right Hon. Lord Gray, F.R.S. Lond. and Edin. &c. — Lord Gray here presents us with a specimen of a reduction of the observations on the barometer, at different latitudes, into a tabular and curvilinear form; and he surmises that, by accurate registers, kept at St. Helena, the Cape of Good Hope, and Botany Bay, we might be enabled to determine whether the degrees of atmospheric pressure are correspondent, and nearly simultaneous, in the different quarters of the globe. The very limited range of the barometrical scale in many of the tropical countries seems to have been already ascertained: but no harm can result from the institution of new and authenticated trials.

An Account of several new and rare Species of Fishes, taken on the South Coast of Devonshire, with some Remarks on some others of more common Occurrence. By George Montagu, Esq. F.L.S. and M.W.S. — The departed author of this ingenious communication has repeatedly drawn from us that tribute of commendation which is due to perseverance and perspicacity of research; and it cannot be doubted that the united efforts even of a few individuals, gifted with the same acuteness and diligence of observation, would essentially contribute to the elucidation of British ichthyology. Mr. Montagu's numerous remarks on the genus *Raia* were derived from the examination of some thousands of this family of fishes, either alive or freshly captured. In a single paragraph, he has explained the sexual distinctions of the tribe in a manner that cannot be misapprehended, but which proves, nevertheless, that some of our usually alleged specific differences are founded in error. The *Chagrinea* of Pennant, or *Dun-cow* of the west-country fishermen, a species of rare occurrence, is more accurately described than heretofore, and delineated in a plate. — Mr. M. has also laid down precise points of difference between the common Skate and the sharp-nosed Ray. — By the adoption of the term *maculata*, and applying it to the only

only truly spotted British species, he has obviated the confusion occasioned by the *Rubus* of Gmelin, the *Miraletus* of Donovan, and the *Fuller-ray* of Pennant.

Zipotheca tetradens, described in the first volume of these Memoirs, is now supposed to be synonymous with the *Vandellius Lusitanicus* of Shaw; who, very unaccountably, had ranked it in the Thoracic instead of the Apodal order.

Mr. Montagu has, moreover, adduced two additional proofs of the existence of *Leptocephalus Morrisii*, accompanied by a more correct generic and specific description than any that had yet appeared, and illustrated by a drawing. — His observations, however, on *Callionymus dracunculus* are rather at variance with Mr. Neill's supposition of its identity with *C. lyra*.

'The Dracunculus,' he adds, 'is held in utter detestation by the fishermen on this coast, from the supposed venom communicated to the wound inflicted by the tridentate spine on each side of the head. From this circumstance, it has acquired the appellation of Stingfish, a name applied to the common Weaver, Trachinus Draco, in other places. When the Dracunculus is caught, no mercy is shewn to it, being indignantly buried in the shingle by a stamp of the foot.

'To the great astonishment of the natives, I collected some of this species for culinary purposes. In taste, and in the dryness of the fish, they much resembled the common Gurnards.'

The species which the author has added to the catalogue of British fishes are, *Blennius ocellaris*, *Gadus argenteolus*, *Sparus lineatus*, and *Trigla lævis*; on each of which, as well as on some other varieties, he has descanted with his usual critical discernment.

Observations upon the Alveus or general Bed of the German Ocean and British Channel. By Robert Stevenson, Esq. Civil Engineer. — The object of this essay is to shew, from an induction of particular cases, that the waters of the ocean have been gradually gaining on the land of the British shores; a position which, however alarming to posterity, Mr. Stevenson seems to have established on plain and incontrovertible matters of fact. His doctrine is, moreover, in all probability, susceptible of rather general application.

'Nature,' he adds, 'seems to have created a kind of compensating power to counterbalance the seeming conflict of the elements of Earth and Water: for while the ocean appears to be extending its surface, it seems also probable that the quantity of its waters are upon the whole lessened, and that part of them undergoes a complete and permanent change of form after the process of evaporation; and that the earthy particles continually accumulating at the bottom of the sea have a direct tendency

not only to preserve a uniform level, but even in some instances to make the water overrun what we have been accustomed to consider its boundary. If we attentively inquire into the *generality* of the wasting effects of the sea upon the margin of the land, it will perhaps appear, that the instances in which the sea can be considered as just taking a portion of land from one part, while it adds in like proportion to another part of the coast, will come far short of the instances of detrition in all quarters of the globe.'

Geological Remarks on the Cartlane Craig. By Dr. Macknight. — Of the numerous travellers who are annually attracted to the falls of the Clyde, few comparatively are apprized of the grand rocky scenery to which the present paper refers; and which consists of an enormous chasm, or fissure, in the sand-stone-formation above Lanark, richly clothed with plantation and brushwood. This sublime ravine, which presents corresponding salient and receding angles, and which seems to have been caused by some sudden convulsion of nature, runs at least three-fourths of a mile, in the form of the segment of a circle; its greatest depth being little short of 400 feet; its width, at the highest part, probably exceeding 600 feet; while, at the bottom, it is little more than the breadth of the small stream which flows through this romantic bed into the Clyde. Towards the extremities, the height on both sides gradually declines, till the chasm entirely disappears. Near the middle of the great fissure, the channel of the stream is crossed by a mass of floetz trapp-rock, or green-stone, near which smaller veins of the same material may be traced, running in a similar direction. Dr. Macknight urges several arguments in favour of the opinion that the chasm was effected by subsidence, and not by the injection of the green-stone from below: but he candidly admits that 'points of this nature will not be decided satisfactorily, without the most accurate observation and experienced judgment in the progress of geological knowledge.'

Account of the Irish Testacea. By Thomas Brown, Esq. &c. — This enlarged catalogue contains several new species, accompanied by drawings. Among the novelties, we particularly remark *Tellina jugosa, Arca barbata, Trochus discrepans, T. rugosus, Turbo pentangularis, Helix elliptica, H. elegans, H. cochlea, H. limosa, and Nerita glabrissima.*

Remarks respecting the Causes of Organization. By Dr. Barclay. — From the existence of certain very imperfect fœtuses, some of which had been produced without the head or brains, some without the head, neck, and shoulders, and some without the abdominal viscera, Dr. Barclay not only in-

fers the inadequacy of Haller's attempt to explain such phænomena, by supposing that the regular processes of organization were interrupted by some accidental lesion, or disease, which occasioned the destruction of the deficient parts, but is led to the general conclusion that the principle of life 'must necessarily have existed and even operated before a single organ could be formed; it being impossible that the organs could precede, regulate, or be the cause of, those processes by which they themselves are brought into existence.' This vital principle, or agency, we can know only from its effects, and must ultimately resolve into the exercise of creative power; for here the depth of the metaphysics of physiology must terminate; and in this termination, whether we are led to it by the *monads* of Leibnitz, the *germs* of Bonnet, the *organic molecules* of Buffon, or the *organizing agents* of the present writer, we should do well to acquiesce contentedly and piously, because the whole history of animal reproduction is involved in mystery. If by *organizing agents* Dr. Barclay means *souls*, we have some difficulty in conceiving their production of bodily organs; and if, again, he means something material, and distinct from the thinking principle, if it exists prior to the formation of the corporeal frame, it may equally retain its nature and essence when that frame is dissolved.

On the Genera and Species of Eproboscideous Insects. — On the Arrangement of Œstrideous Insects. Both by William Elford Leach, Esq. — The divisions, nomenclature, and definitions, adopted by Mr. Leach, are suitably illustrated by figures, and are well calculated to facilitate the natural history of two very marked families of insects.

Observations on some Species of the Genus Falco of Linnæus. By James Wilson, Esq. — Mr. Wilson's diligent and considerate review of the Falcon tribe bespeaks much critical acquaintance with one of the most perplexed departments of ornithology: but his remarks are too numerous to suffer abridgement or generalization. His paper was prepared for the press before he was aware of the frequent coincidences of his sentiments with those of Bechstein; a circumstance, however, which ought to inspire his readers with additional confidence in the accuracy of his statements.

On the Geognosy of the Lothians. By Professor Jameson. — As the most striking geological features of the Lothians are the red sand-stone and coal-formations, the learned President of the Society commences his essay with a view of these formations as they are exhibited in the middle district of Scotland; a tract of country bounded by the Frith of Forth on the south, and by the line of the Caledonian Canal on

the north. In this extensive range of soil, the most considerable of the red sand-stone depositions stretches from Stonehaven, in Kincardineshire, to the west side of the island of Arran, in the Frith of Clyde; forming, occasionally, wide-spreading plains, sometimes rising into hills or mountain-groups, and sometimes presenting precipitous cliffs which are beaten by the sea. It rests on primitive or transition rocks, and is distinctly stratified, although it sometimes appears in very thick beds. The following observation is at once ingenious and important:

'Enormously thick but short beds of sand-stone are sometimes surrounded with thin strata of sand-stone, slate-clay, and other rocks. It occasionally happens, that in a ravine or valley, the one side will present a vertical face of red sand-stone, without any marks of stratification, thus intimating the pressure of a thick massive bed, while the opposite side will exhibit numerous thin beds of sand-stone and slate-clay, dipping towards the mural precipice. Here all the rocks are in their original position; there has been no sinking of strata on the side with the mural precipice; for the thin strata, if continued to the precipice, would either rise toward it, or terminate suddenly upon it without any change in their direction, just as we observe to be the case with the thin sand-stone strata, where they come in contact with thick beds of the same rock. Many of the pretended sinkings and shifts, enumerated and described by geologists, are of this description. Indeed it would appear, that these mechanical actions are much less frequent than has been generally imagined, and that the crust of the earth is more firmly built than is admitted by some speculators.'

The principal rocks contained in this sand-stone-formation are, conglomerate, slate-clay, clay-stone, clay-iron-stone, trapp-tuff, amygdaloid, basalt?, clink-stone, felspar, porphyry, green-stone, pitch-stone, lime-stone, lime-stone-conglomerate, and coal. Each of these is shortly considered, with a specific reference to the district in question. Of the clay iron-stone it is remarked that it distinctly passes into the slate-clay, in which it is so frequently involved; consequently, if the clay-slate has been deposited in an aqueous menstruum, the clay-iron-stone must have had the same origin.

This preliminary sketch, though rapid, is on the whole not devoid of interest, and contains hints which may lead to important results: at all events, they excite some degree of impatience for the appearance of the sequel.

The Appendix to the present volume consists of Minutes of the History of the Society, and a continuation of the list of members.

ART. III. *Essays on Insanity, Hypochondriasis, and other Nervous Affections.* By John Reid, M. D., &c. 8vo. pp. 272. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ALTHOUGH this volume treats on a medical subject, and is written by a physician, it can scarcely be called a medical book; since it contains no facts or observations that tend to throw light on the medical or pathological nature of the complaints which it discusses, nor does it lay down any professional regulations for their management. The view which Dr. Reid takes of these mental disorders, or rather his method of writing about them, may be best learned from the titles of the several sections; the first twelve of which are as follow. 'On the influence of the mind upon the body; the power of volition; the fear of death; on pride; remorse; on solitude; excessive study or application of mind; vicissitude a cause and characteristic symptom of intellectual malady; want of sleep; intemperance; the excess of abstinence injurious; morbid affections of the organs of sense.' From these heads of reference, which comprize the contents of about one half of the volume, the reader will perceive that the parts of which it is composed have but little connection with each other; and that they might, with equal propriety, have been placed in an order very different from that which they now occupy. They are indeed designated by the author himself as distinct essays; and, as far as their independence on each other is concerned, they have a full claim to this title. Considering the work, therefore, rather as a collection of separate parts than as one connected whole, we must confine our office to that of giving our readers an idea of the manner in which it is written, and of the way in which the author treats the different topics as they successively come into view.

Dr. Reid's style is very peculiar, and indicates considerable ability, with some practice in the art of writing: but it is rather brilliant than correct, and seems more calculated to produce effect than to convey important truths, or to illustrate a train of argument. It is shrewd, sententious, and aphoristic, but it not unfrequently degenerates into mere point, if not flippancy: — it abounds in antithesis and metaphor, but the contrast is not always apposite, and the allusions are rather fanciful than illustrative, while their frequency renders them occasionally obtrusive. The general cast of the writer's mind indicates a greater fondness for metaphysical than for physical truths; and he always prefers to enforce his arguments by considerations drawn from the general prin-

 ciples

ciples of the human mind, rather than to undertake the much more difficult task of employing specific observations. Yet, although he refers so much to general principles, we do not think that he writes like a man who is intimately acquainted with the foundation on which they rest: his knowlege seems not to arise from the generalization of particular facts, but to have been gleaned from an acquaintance with books, and an intercourse with the world. It is to be observed, indeed, that the authors whom he quotes, or those to whom he apparently alludes, are not numerous, and are of very common occurrence. Johnson's Rasselas seems to be one of the principal sources of his knowlege of the human mind and its faculties; and very few medical and scarcely a single physiological or anatomical writer is mentioned, whose opinions or observations are deemed of sufficient importance to cast any light on the subject. Respecting Dr. Reid's mode of treating insanity we can say nothing, because his remarks are so scanty and indefinite that we can scarcely suppose he intended them to be considered as a specimen of his mode of practice; unless, indeed, he has so little confidence in the power of art over mental diseases, as to imagine that it is most advisable to leave them to the operations of nature.

Notwithstanding these remarks, which may appear severe and hyper-critical, we shall strongly advise our readers to peruse the present volume; and this recommendation we give to the unprofessional equally with the professional. In fact, we believe that the former will profit by it more than the latter; since, although the work contains little either of learned research or scientific investigation, it exhibits a number of useful truths, placed in a striking light; and it contains many apophthegms which may prove valuable in the conduct of life, delivered in such a manner as to impress themselves forcibly on the memory. We shall exemplify our remarks by a few quotations, which we shall endeavour to select so as to present a fair average of the whole production.

The second essay, on the power of volition, commences with the following observations:

'Nervous diseases, from their daily increasing prevalence, deserve at the present time a more than ordinary degree of attention and interest on the part of the medical practitioner. Yet nothing surely can surpass the inhumanity, as well as folly, with which patients of this class are too frequently treated. — We often act upon the ill-founded idea that such complaints are altogether dependent upon the power of the will; a notion which, in paradoxical extravagance, scarcely yields to the doctrine of a modern, though now obsolete writer, on the Philosophy of Morals, who asserted

asserted that no one need die, if, with a sufficient energy, he *determined* to live. To command, or to advise a person laboring under nervous depression, to be cheerful and alert, is no less idle and absurd, than it would be to command or advise a person, under the direct and most intense influence of the sun's rays, to shiver with cold, or one who is "wallowing naked in December's snows" to perspire from a sensation of excessive heat. The practice of laughing at, or scolding a patient in this class, is equally cruel and ineffectual. No one was ever laughed or scolded out of hypochondriasis. It is scarcely likely that we should elevate a person's spirits by insulting his understanding. The malady of the nerves is in general of too obstinate a nature to yield to a sarcasm or a sneer. It would scarcely be more preposterous to think of dissipating a dropsy of the chest, than a distemper of the mind by the force of ridicule or rebuke. The hypochondriac may feel indeed the edge of satire as keenly as he would that of a sword; but although its point should penetrate his bosom, it would not be likely to let out from it any portion of that noxious matter by which it is so painfully oppressed. The external expression of his disorder may be checked by the coercive influence of shame or fear; but in doing this, a similar kind of risk is incurred as arises from the repelling of a cutaneous eruption, which, although it conceal the outward appearance, seldom fails still more firmly to establish the internal strength, to increase the danger, and to protract the continuance of the disease. By indirect and imperceptible means the attention may, in many instances, be gently and insensibly enticed, but seldom can we with safety attempt to *force* it from any habitual topic of painful contemplation. In endeavouring to tear the mind from a subject to which it has long and closely attached itself, we are almost sure to occasion an irreparable laceration of its structure.'

The effects of intemperance are thus described:

'"Living fast," is a metaphorical phrase which, more accurately perhaps than is in general imagined, expresses a literal fact. Whatever hurries the action of the corporeal functions must tend to abridge the period of their probable duration. As the wheel of a carriage performs a certain number of rotations before it arrives at its destined goal, so to the arteries of the human frame we may conceive that there is allotted only a certain number of pulsations before their vital energy is entirely exhausted. Extraordinary longevity has seldom been known to occur, except in persons of a remarkably tranquil and slow-paced circulation.

'But if intemperance merely curtailed the number of our days, we should have comparatively little reason to find fault with its effects. The idea of "a short life, and a merry one," is plausible enough, if it could be generally realized. But, unfortunately, what shortens existence is calculated also to make it melancholy. There is no process by which we can *distil* life, so as to separate from it all foul or heterogeneous matter, and leave nothing behind but drops of pure defecated happiness. If the contrary were

the case, we should scarcely be disposed to blame the vital extravagance of the voluptuary who, provided that his sun shine brilliant and unclouded as long as it continue above his head, cares not although it should set at an earlier hour.

" It is seldom that debauchery separates at once the thread of vitality. There occurs, for the most part, a wearisome and painful interval between the first loss of a capacity for enjoying life, and the period of its ultimate and entire extinction. This circumstance, it is to be presumed, is out of the consideration of those persons who, with a prodigality more extravagant than that of Cleopatra, dissolve the pearl of health in the goblet of intemperance. The slope towards the grave these victims of indiscretion find no easy descent. The scene is darkened long before the curtain falls. Having exhausted prematurely all that is delicious in the cup of life, they are obliged to swallow afterwards the bitter dregs. Death is the last, but not the worst result of intemperance.'

In some of the remarks on the hereditary nature of madness, we think that all our readers will not be disposed to coincide with Dr. Reid:

' " To be well born" is a circumstance of real importance, but not in the sense in which that expression is usually employed. The most substantial privileges of birth are not those which are confined to the descendants of noble ancestors.

' The heir of a sound constitution has no right to regret the absence of any other patrimony. A man who has derived from the immediate authors of his being, vigorous and untainted stamina of mind as well as of body, enters upon the world with a sufficient foundation and ample materials for happiness. Very different is it with the progeny of those who are constitutionally diseased in any way, but more especially with the progeny of persons who are radically morbid in intellect. No wealth, which it is in the power of such parents to bequeath, can compensate the probability of evil which they entail upon the creatures and the victims of their selfish indulgence or their criminal indiscretion.

' Nothing can be more obvious than that one who is aware of a decided bias in his own person towards mental derangement, ought to shun the chance of extending and of perpetuating, without any assignable limit, the ravages of so dreadful a calamity. No rites, however holy, can, under such circumstances, consecrate the conjugal union. In a case like this, marriage itself is a transgression of morality. A man who is so situated, in incurring the risk of becoming a parent, involves himself in a crime, which may not improbably project its lengthened shadow, a shadow too which widens in proportion as it advances, over the intellect and the happiness of an indefinite succession of beings.

' The ruffian who fires at the intended object of his plunder, takes away the life of him only at whom his aim is levelled. The bullet which penetrates the heart of the unfortunate victim does in general no farther mischief. But, he who inflicts upon a single individual, the worse than deadly wound of insanity, knows not the

the numbers to which its venom may be communicated; he poisons a public stream out of which multitudes may drink: he is the enemy, not of one man, but of mankind.

'In cases of disease which are more strictly corporeal, the risk as well as evil of engendering them is smaller, not only because they are less serious in their character and consequences than mental maladies, but also, because they are more within the scope of management and possible counteraction.'—

'After all, I would be understood to inculcate, that strictly speaking, it is the *tendency* only to insanity that is inherited, or, in other words, a greater facility than ordinary, to be acted upon by those external circumstances, that are calculated to produce the disease.

'It might not perhaps transgress the exactness of truth to assert, that the external circumstances and accidents of a man's life, and, what is more important, his physical and moral habits are calculated to have a greater efficacy than any seeds of disorder that may lie concealed in his original organization. That therefore one, who under a fear of radical predisposition, should, from early youth, adopt a counteracting regimen, as it relates both to the body and the mind, would often be in less danger of being affected by intellectual malady, than another, who, confiding in a constitutional immunity from this form of disease, should continually and carelessly expose himself to its predisposing and exciting causes.'

In the last chapter, on Occupation, Dr. R. considers the moderate and sensible employment of the mind, and proper bodily exercise, as among the best remedies for hypochondriasis. Here many of his opinions are given in a very aphoristical style:—for example:—'A man who is continually feeling his pulse is never likely to have a good one.'—'The hypochondriac who is in the habit of weighing his meals, will generally find that they lie heavy on his stomach. If he take a walk or a ride with no other view than to pick up health, he will seldom meet with it on the road,' &c. &c.

ART. IV. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Benjamin Franklin, LL.D. F.R.S.*, &c. Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States of America at the Court of France, and for the Treaty of Peace and Independence with Great Britain, &c. &c. Written by himself to a late Period, and continued to the Time of his Death by his Grandson, William Temple Franklin. Now first published from the Original MSS. Comprising the Private Correspondence and Public Negotiations of Dr. Franklin, and a Selection from his Political, Philosophical, and Miscellaneous Works. 4to. pp. 547. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1818.

THE most valuable and interesting part of these memoirs, which contains the more early life of Dr. Franklin, has been already for many years before the world, though never in

in so perfect a state or so authentic a form as in the present volume; because the preceding publications of the life, which we noticed in our xiiith vol. N.S., p. 304. and 307., were nothing more than English translations of a French translation of the English original. As they passed through this doubly distorting and discolouring medium, we cannot doubt that the early memoirs lost much of their native simplicity of narration, and of that primitive hue of diction which reflects so strongly the personal temperament and character of the writer: but the facts remain the same, though the mode of telling them is different; and we shall not therefore dwell on that portion of this volume which is in substance only a republication, and is, at least, not recommended by the attraction of novelty.

Doctor Franklin was born in the year 1706: but the account of his life written by himself, which we reviewed in the volume just mentioned, was not completed to a later period than the year 1731; and the continuation of the narrative, from that date to the Doctor's death in 1790, was the work of Dr. Stuber of Philadelphia. This continuation was deficient in the characteristic idiom and the vivid particularity of Dr. Franklin's own style. He appears to have excelled in the auto-biographical department: his vanity, if he were vain, is never so prominent as to disgust; nor do we ever see any thing offensive in his egotism, since it is never redundant or nauseating: he speaks of himself more like an impartial spectator than a self-adulating historian; and his memoirs, as far as they proceed, are particularly valuable from the judicious reflections with which they are interspersed, and the maxims of an enlightened prudence with which they abound. He saw much of life in all its diversity of circumstances and ranks; and respecting all that he saw he was never remiss in making those remarks, and drawing those conclusions, by which human conduct might be regulated and human society improved. We cannot, therefore, but deeply regret that he was finally prevented from completing these memoirs as he had originally designed. When he had prosecuted the narrative of his eventful life to the year 1731, the work suffered a long interruption, and it was renewed only to experience another and a final discontinuance. In 1784, when the Doctor was at Passy near Paris, the earnest solicitations of two friends induced him to resume the thread of his memoirs: but he made only a small addition to what he had before written. In 1788, after he had returned home, he once more recommenced the same task, but did not succeed in conducting the narrative beyond the year 1757.

In

In that continuation of his life which Dr. Franklin began at Passy in 1784, he describes the establishment of the first subscription-library that ever existed in Pennsylvania, which strikingly illustrates the little attention that was at that time paid to literary pursuits, or to intellectual cultivation, in the United Provinces:

'At the time I established myself in Pennsylvania,' he says, 'there was not a good bookseller's shop in any of the colonies to the southward of Boston. In New York and Philadelphia, the printers were indeed stationers, but they sold only paper, &c. almanacks, ballads, and a few common school-books. Those who loved reading were obliged to send for their books from England: the members of the junto' (a sort of moral and intellectual association which Dr. F. had established) 'had each a few. We had left the ale-house, where we first met, and hired a room to hold our club in. I proposed that we should all of us bring our books to that room; where they would not only be ready to consult in our conferences, but become a common benefit, each of us being at liberty to borrow such as he wished to read at home. This was accordingly done, and for some time contented us: finding the advantage of this little collection, I proposed to render the benefit from the books more common, by commencing a public subscription-library. I drew a sketch of the plan and rules that would be necessary, and got a skilful conveyancer, Mr. Charles Brogden, to put the whole in form of articles of agreement to be subscribed; by which each subscriber engaged to pay a certain sum down for the first purchase of the books, and an annual contribution for increasing them. So few were the readers at that time in Philadelphia, and the majority of us so poor, that I was not able with great industry to find more than fifty persons (mostly young tradesmen) willing to pay down for this purpose forty shillings each, and ten shillings per annum; with this little fund we began. The books were imported; the library was open one day in the week for lending them to subscribers, on their promissory notes to pay double the value if not duly returned. The institution soon manifested its utility, and was imitated by other towns and in other provinces. The libraries were augmented by donations; reading became fashionable; and our people having no public amusements to divert their attention from study became better acquainted with books; and in a few years were observed by strangers to be better instructed and more intelligent than people of the same rank generally are in other countries.' (P. 63.)

Not a century has elapsed since reading was thus rendered more general, and, as the Doctor says 'became fashionable' in Philadelphia and in other parts of the Union: but what a stupendous progress has been made in the intellectual proficiency of the people of the United States! In former periods of the world, and in former states of civilized society, ages must have intervened before any thing like a similar proficiency

ficiency could have been made: but how much has been done for the social and intellectual improvement of man in the United States of America in a comparatively few years! This rapid progress in the amelioration of human society, in that part of the world, has been owing principally to the illuminating agency of a free press, and the beneficent influence of a free government. The revolutionary war, while it lasted, suspended the growth of America in a commercial and agricultural point of view; yet, from the free discussion which it excited, and the energetic sentiment of liberty which it cherished and diffused, it served to give a more elastic bound to the mental agency of the population, and to fit them for a higher degree of elevation in the political scale than they could otherwise have attained. A free press must make a free people; and a free people cannot in the present state of the world subsist without a free press: it gives an impulse to intellectual cultivation which nothing else can impart; and hence is rapidly produced a state of sentiment which is totally incompatible with the degrading thraldom of arbitrary government.

At the period when Dr. Franklin instituted the first subscription-library in Philadelphia, he mentions that reading was the only amusement that he allowed himself.

'I spent no time,' says he, 'in taverns, games or frolics of any kind; and my industry continued as indefatigable as it was necessary. I was indebted for my printing-house, I had a young family coming on to be educated, and I had two competitors to contend with for business, who were established in the place before me. My circumstances, however, grew daily easier. My original habits of frugality continuing, and my father having among his instructions to me when a boy frequently repeated a proverb of Solomon, "*Seest thou a man diligent in his calling, he shall stand before kings, he shall not stand before mean men,*" I thence considered industry as a means of obtaining wealth and distinction, which encouraged me; though I did not think that I should ever literally stand before kings, which however has since happened; for I have stood before five, and even had the honour of sitting down with one, the King of Denmark, to dinner. We have an English proverb that says,

"He that would thrive
Must ask his wife:"

it was lucky for me that I had one as much disposed to industry and frugality as myself. She assisted me cheerfully in my business, folding and stitching pamphlets, tending shop, purchasing old linen rags for the paper-makers, &c. We kept no idle servants, our table was plain and simple, our furniture of the cheapest. For instance, my breakfast was for a long time bread and milk,

(no tea,) and I ate it out of a two-penny earthen porringer, with a pewter spoon: but mark how luxury will enter families, and make a progress in spite of principle; being called one morning to breakfast, I found it in a china bowl, with a spoon of silver. They had been bought for me without my knowledge by my wife, and had cost her the enormous sum of three-and-twenty shillings; for which she had no other excuse or apology to make, but that she thought *her* husband deserved a silver spoon and china bowl as well as any of his neighbours.' (P. 65.)

Dr. Franklin appears to have early conceived an aversion to the forms of public worship and the modes of religious instruction which he found in use among the different sects; and in 1728 he 'composed a little liturgy or form of prayer' for his 'own private use, entitled Articles of Belief and Acts of Religion.' He does not attempt to vindicate this dereliction of public worship; and, if he had more often made it a subject of reflection, it is probable that the consideration merely of its general utility, independently of other reasons, would have made him sacrifice his individual objections to a regard for the good of the community, which the habitual practice of social worship is so well calculated to promote. Public worship may be defended on these reasonable grounds, without any reference to more authoritative injunctions, — that it favours the expansion of the social sympathies, by bringing the rich and the poor together where accidental distinctions fade away in the common dependence of all on the common Father of all; — that it thus tends to diffuse kind and liberal sentiments through the different gradations of the social scheme; — that it tends to make the great humble and the humble great; — and that its periodical recurrence assists in rendering habitual the feeling of adoration that attaches us to the Supreme Being, but would otherwise be liable to become fugitive and evanescent.

'I had' (says Dr. Franklin, p. 66.) 'been religiously educated as a Presbyterian; but though some of the dogmas of that persuasion, such as *the eternal decrees of God, election, reprobation*, &c. appeared to me unintelligible, others doubtful, and I early absented myself from the public assemblies of the sect, Sunday being my studying day, I never was without some religious principles: I never doubted, for instance, the existence of a Deity; that he made the world and governed it by his providence; that the most acceptable service of God was the doing good to man; that our souls are immortal; and that all crimes will be punished and virtue rewarded either here or hereafter: *these I esteemed the essentials of every religion, and being to be found in all the religions we had in our country, I respected them all, though with different degrees of respect, as I found them more or less mixed with other articles, which, without any tendency to inspire, promote, or confirm morality,*

mordity, served principally to divide us, and make us unfriendly to one another.'

In 1732, Dr. F. published the first number of "*Poor Richard's Almanack,*" which he contrived to render a vehicle of the most important moral instruction to the great mass of the community, by filling the little spaces that occurred between the remarkable days in the Calendar with proverbial sentences of the most general utility. This small work had a very extensive circulation, not only in America but in Europe. It is said to have been the property of Midas to transmute every thing that he touched into gold: but it actually was the higher faculty of Franklin to convert every project that he undertook to some purpose of utility, — to the moral or physical benefit of mankind. He was not a profound speculator or metaphysician: but, as a practical philosopher, moralist, and statesman, his merits were of the highest order; and, if we consider his numerous contributions to the sum of national or individual good, we shall not readily find an individual who has been a more extensive benefactor to mankind. A sagacious and discriminating view of the useful, with a skilful adaptation of the means to the end, was one of the distinguishing characteristics of his mind. No man ever had a more clear perception of moral and political defects and practicable remedies; and the means which he adapted to the end that he proposed to effect were usually of the simple kind, as when he converted the school-boy's kite into a vehicle for bringing the electric fluid from the clouds. He was not one of those philosophers who bewilder themselves in the complexity of their own operations; or who are beguiled into a maze of research, where they add to the dark intricacies of error instead of displaying the lucid regularity of truth.

We meet with an anecdote of Whitfield, the famous founder of the Calvinistical Methodists in this country, which will probably amuse some of our readers. In 1739 he began to propagate his favourite doctrines on the other side of the Atlantic. The province of Georgia had been recently settled: but the persons, who had been selected for the purpose, were not sufficiently robust and hardy for such an undertaking, and they soon perished in great numbers, and left many orphans destitute of support. Whitfield, much to his honour, warmly espoused the cause of these poor children; and he most zealously laboured, by the influence of his preaching, to procure subscriptions sufficient for the erection of an orphan-house in Georgia for their education and maintenance. Dr. Franklin approved the principle of the scheme, but endeavoured to persuade Whitfield that, instead of sending materials

materials and workmen from Philadelphia to build the house in Georgia, it would be a great saving of expence at once to erect the proposed establishment in Philadelphia, and to bring the children from Georgia. Whitfield, however, obstinately adhered to his original project; and Dr. Franklin had determined not to subscribe to the accomplishment.

'I happened soon after,' says Dr. Franklin, 'to attend one of his sermons, in the course of which I perceived he intended to finish with a collection, and I silently resolved he should get nothing from me: I had in my pocket a handful of copper money, three or four silver dollars, and five pistoles in gold; as he proceeded, I began to soften, and concluded to give the copper. Another stroke of his oratory made me ashamed of that, and determined me to give the silver; and he finished so admirably that I emptied my pocket wholly into the collector's dish, gold and all! At this sermon there was also one of our club, who being of my sentiments respecting the building in Georgia, and suspecting a collection might be intended, had by precaution emptied his pockets before he came from home; towards the conclusion of the discourse, however, he felt a strong inclination to give, and applied to a neighbour, who stood near him, to lend him some money for the purpose. The request was fortunately made to perhaps the only man in the company who had the firmness not to be affected by the preacher. His answer was: "*At any other time, friend Hopkinson, I would lend to thee freely; but not now, for thee seems to me to be out of thy right senses.*"' (P. 85.)

During many years, Dr. F. was a member of the House of Assembly in Pennsylvania, the majority of whom were of the society of *Friends*, or Quakers; and he had often occasion to remark the state of perplexity into which they were thrown, whenever they were required by the crown to vote any supply for military purposes. They were unwilling not to comply with the wishes of the government, and yet they could not do this without some dereliction of their rigidly pacific principles. In this dilemma, they had recourse to that species of sophistry which may be called *amphibology*; in order to disguise to themselves, and to conceal from others, the deviation from their established maxims and the incongruity between their professions and their practice.

'Their common mode,' says Dr. Franklin, 'was to grant money under the phrase of its being "*for the King's use*," and never to enquire how it was applied. But if the demand was not directly from the crown, that phrase was found not so proper, and some other was to be invented. Thus, when powder was wanting, I think it was for the garrison at Louisburg, and the government of New England solicited a grant of some from Pennsylvania, which was much urged on the House by Governor Thomas; they would not grant money to buy *powder*, because that was an ingredient of

of war; but they voted an aid to New England of 3000 pounds to be put into the hands of the Governor, and appropriated it for the purchase of bread, flour, wheat, or *other grain.* Some of the Council, desirous of giving the House still further embarrassment, advised the Governor not to accept provision, as not being the thing he demanded: but he replied, "I shall take the money, for I understand very well their meaning, *other grain* is gunpowder," which he accordingly bought, and they never objected to it.' (P. 92.)

In the course of the war with Spain in 1740, &c., in which that country was afterward joined by France, this Governor Thomas of Pennsylvania laboured in vain to prevail on the Quaker-Assembly of the province to pass a militia-law; though they had in some instances, as in the case above mentioned, suffered their anti-military principles to be relaxed by the aid of a little ambiguous phraseology. On this occasion, Dr. Franklin placed the helpless situation of the province in such strong lights, in a pamphlet which he entitled *Plain Truth*, that, when he soon afterward proposed a plan for forming an armed association for the defence of the province by a voluntary subscription, the subscribers in a short time amounted to ten thousand; who furnished themselves with arms, formed themselves into regiments, and elected their officers. The total absence of all personal vanity in the mind of Franklin was conspicuously seen in this affair; for, when the officers of the Philadelphia regiment met and chose him for their colonel, he declined the honour, because he conceived himself (as he tells us) to be 'unfit' for the station. Most persons, who had risen from humble circumstances, would have eagerly seized the favourable opportunity, which such a command would have afforded them, for displaying their elevation and gratifying their pride: but the mind of Franklin had none of this *littleness*; and, instead of parading as an officer among his fellow-citizens, he regularly took his turn of duty as a common soldier in the nightly guard of a battery that was erected for the protection of the town.

About this period, Dr. F. was chosen a member of the House of Assembly in Pennsylvania, to which honourable situation he was re-chosen *every year for ten years, without ever asking any elector for his vote, or signifying either directly or indirectly any desire of being chosen.* This was as it should be. Here was no bribery on the part of the electors, and no mean solicitation on the part of the candidate.

In 1750, Dr. Franklin was named as one of two commissioners who were appointed to treat with the Indians at Carlisle,

lisle, in the province of Pennsylvania. The Indians wanted, as usual, to be regaled with spirituous liquors during the progress of the negotiation: but, knowing their aptitude "to get drunk," Dr. F. would not suffer them to receive any of the intoxicating fluid pending the discussions; telling them "that if they would continue sober during the treaty" they should have plenty of rum "when the treaty was over." They accordingly remained sober, because they had no power of being otherwise.

'The treaty,' says the Doctor, 'was conducted very orderly, and concluded to mutual satisfaction. They then claimed and received the rum; this was in the afternoon; they were near 100 men, women and children, and were lodged in temporary cabins built in the form of a square, just without the town. In the evening, hearing a great noise among them, the commissioners walked to see what was the matter; we found they had made a great bonfire in the middle of the square; they were all drunk, men and women, quarelling and fighting. Their dark coloured bodies, half naked, seen only by the gloomy light of the bonfire, running after and beating one another with fire-brands, accompanied by their horrid yellings, formed a scene the most resembling our ideas of hell that could well be imagined; there was no appeasing the tumult, and we retired to our lodging. At midnight, a number of them came thundering at our door, demanding more rum, of which we took no notice. The next day, sensible that they had misbehaved in giving us that disturbance, they sent three of their old counsellors to make their apology. The orator acknowledged the fault, but laid it upon the rum; and then endeavoured to excuse the rum by saying, "*The Great Spirit who made all things made every thing for some use, and whatever use he designed any thing for, that use it should always be put to. Now, when he made rum, he said,* LET THIS BE FOR THE INDIANS TO GET DRUNK WITH; and it must be so."' (P. 97.)

When the army under General Braddock experienced a signal defeat near Fort du Quesne by a much smaller body of French and Indians, in 1753, and great alarm was diffused through the province of Pennsylvania, Dr. Franklin, who had now acquired a little military experience, undertook, at the earnest request of the governor, the command of some troops which were raised for the defence of the North Western frontier. While he was engaged in this office, and his men were occupied in building a line of forts, he made a remark which will be found applicable to other persons besides soldiers, but is perhaps more particularly suited to the military:

'When men are employed they are best contented; for on the days the troops worked, they were good natured and cheerful:

and with the consciousness of having done a good day's work, they spent the evening jollily; but on our idle days, they were mutinous and quarrelsome, finding fault with the pork, the bread, &c., and were continually in bad humour; which put me in mind of a sea-captain whose rule it was to keep his men constantly at work; and when his mate once told him that they had done every thing and there was nothing farther to employ them about, "O," said he, "*make them scour the anchor.*" (P. 118.)

Much misconception has prevailed respecting the origin of the well-known *Stamp-Act*, which was passed during the administration of Mr. George Grenville in 1765, and was the primary cause of those internal feuds and irreconcileable animosities which brought on the American war, and finally dissolved the union between the mother-country and the colonies. As this act has become an important transaction in the history not only of America but of this country, and as, like the box of Pandora, it dispersed a great variety of ills over the world, we shall make no apology for quoting that part of these memoirs in which Dr. Franklin gives a clear exposition of the origin, as well as of the injustice and the folly, of a measure to which the nations of Europe may trace back many of their present calamities. The American revolution had its source in the *Stamp-Act*, and the French revolution naturally rose out of the American: the Stamp-act really formed the trunk out of which they both germinated; and that Act was owing to certain principles, very adverse to liberty, which had been instilled in an evil hour into a certain royal breast, and have ever since had an unfortunate ascendancy in the councils of his ministers and on the whole scheme of his reign.

'Some time in the winter of 1763–4, Mr. Grenville called together the agents of the several colonies and told them that he proposed to draw a revenue from America; and to that end his intention was to levy a stamp-duty on the colonies by act of parliament in the ensuing session, of which he thought it fit that they should be immediately acquainted, that they might have time to consider, and if any other duty equally productive would be more agreeable to them, they might let him know it. The agents were therefore directed to write this to their respective assemblies, and communicate to him the answers they should receive: the agents wrote accordingly.—I was a member in the Assembly of Pennsylvania, when this notification came to hand. The observations there made upon it were that the antient, established, and regular method of drawing aids from the colonies was this. The occasion was always first considered by their sovereign in his privy council, by whose sage advice he directed his secretary of state to write circular letters to the several governors, who were directed to lay them before their assemblies. In those letters the occasion

was explained for their satisfaction, with gracious expressions of his Majesty's confidence in their known duty and affection, on which he relied that they would grant such sums, as should be suitable to their abilities, loyalty, and zeal for his service. That the colonies had always granted liberally on such requisitions, and so liberally during the late war, that the King, sensible they had granted much more than their proportion, had recommended it to parliament five years successively to make them some compensation, and the parliament accordingly returned them 200,000l. a year to be divided among them. That the proposition of taxing them in parliament was therefore both cruel and unjust. That by the constitution of the colonies their business was with the king in matters of aid, they had nothing to do with any financier, nor he with them; nor were the agents the proper channels through which requisitions should be made; it was therefore improper for them to enter into any stipulation, or make any proposition to Mr. Grenville about laying taxes on their constituents by parliament, which had really no right at all to tax them,' &c.

Though, however, the different houses of representatives in the North-American colonies protested against the exercise of the assumed right to tax them in a British parliament,

'They were so far from refusing to grant money that they resolved to the following purpose: "That they always had, so they always should think it their duty to grant aid to the crown, according to their abilities, whenever required of them in the usual constitutional manner." I went soon after to England, and took with me an authentic copy of this resolution, which I presented to Mr. Grenville, before he brought in the Stamp-act. I asserted in the House of Commons (Mr. Grenville being present) that I had done so, and he did not deny it. — And had Mr. Grenville, instead of that Act, applied to the King in council for such requisitional letters to be circulated by the secretary of state, I am sure he would have obtained more money from the colonies by their voluntary grants than he himself expected from his stamps. But he chose compulsion rather than persuasion, and would not receive from their good will what he thought he could obtain without it.'

As we have no doubt that the above extracts contain the true history of that transaction which, in its progress, alienated the American colonies from the British crown, it is clear from the plain statement of Dr. Franklin that the *real object* of the British cabinet in imposing the Stamp-act was not to obtain a revenue from America; because, if that had been the sole purpose, it might have been much more effectually accomplished by other means. The colonies had been and would have continued to be liberal of their money, but they were tenacious of their liberties: they would part with the one but not with the other. What, then, was the *real object* which the crown had in view in the imposition of the Stamp-act?

May we not safely assert, now that the ashes of the American revolutionary war are cold, that the *real object* was the extension of the prerogative beyond the boundary of the constitution? The experiment was to be first made at a distance, and, if successful abroad, it was to be attempted nearer home. Though this Act was repealed in the administration of Lord Rockingham in 1766, yet it had excited in the colonies a suspicion of the despotic intentions of the British cabinet which could never afterward be removed, and which the measures, that soon followed, proved not to have been causelessly entertained. Dr. Franklin most anxiously laboured to prevent the final breach which he foresaw would soon occur between the North-American colonies and the mother-country: but he laboured in vain; for, when great changes are about to take place in states, they are usually under the administration of incapacity and folly, combined with violence and tyranny; by the united operation of which, the sentiment of respect is extinguished and that of animosity inflamed. The government of the mother-country over the colonies was conducted by agents of this kind; and the effects which ensued were the usual results of similar attempts.

In the year 1773, the opposition which had been excited in the North-American colonies against Great Britain was kindled into indignant rage in the state of Massachusetts by an accidental circumstance. Some letters had been written by Lieutenant-Governor Hutchinson and others in Boston to persons in official situations in this country, the object of which was to represent the spirit that was prevalent in the colonies as in the highest degree inimical to the parent-state, and as requiring a more arbitrary system of government than they had hitherto experienced. When these letters were put into the possession of Dr. Franklin as agent for the colony, he was so impressed with the malignity of their contents that he felt it his duty to transmit them to his employers, in order to excite their vigilance against a system of perfidious hostility to the very existence of their liberties; and the knowlege of the circumstances contained in them impelled the House of Representatives of the province of Massachusetts to address a spirited petition to the King against the conduct of the governor and lieutenant-governor of the province, as tending to produce the most incurable animosity between the colonies and the mother-country. The subject of this petition came to be heard before a committee of the Privy-council in January 1774, Mr. Dunning and Mr. John Lee appearing as counsel for the assembly of the province of Massachusetts; and Mr. Wedderburn,

derburn, who was afterward Lord Loughborough, as counsel for the governor and lieutenant-governor. Mr. Wedderburn, instead of vindicating his clients, pronounced the most vehement and malignant invective against Dr. Franklin, that was ever uttered on a similar occasion against any individual. If Dr. Franklin, instead of being a man of resplendent worth and a statesman of irreproachable probity, had been a venal profligate or an Old-Bailey culprit, the advocate could not have spoken of him in more ignominious terms, or have depicted him as a person of more flagitious turpitude. He even represented Dr. Franklin as having stolen the letters, or procured them to be stolen. "I hope, my Lords," said he, "you will mark and brand the man, for the honour of this country, of Europe, and of mankind." — "He has forfeited all the respect of societies and of men. Into what companies will he hereafter go with an unembarrassed face, or the honest intrepidity of virtue? Men will watch him with a jealous eye, they will hide their papers from him, and lock up their escrutoires. He will henceforth esteem it a libel to be called *a man of letters, homo trium literarum;*" meaning *fur*, or *thief*. While the person who uttered this *tirade* of unmerited obloquy has passed almost into oblivion, or is remembered with contempt, the name of Franklin is cherished with veneration by the good and the wise, in every nation in which science is cultivated and liberty is known. The editor of these memoirs has very properly inserted at p. 184. a statement respecting the above-mentioned transaction, which was addressed by Dr. Priestley in 1802 to the editor of the Monthly Magazine. Dr. Priestley, who had obtained admission into the Privy-council on this occasion by the interposition of Mr. Burke, was present when Mr. Wedderburn fulminated his invective against Dr. Franklin; and on the next morning at breakfast Dr. Franklin told Priestley that "he had never before been so sensible of the power of a good conscience; for that if he had not considered the thing for which he had been so much insulted, as one of the best actions of his life, and what he should certainly do again in the same circumstances, he could not have supported it."

On the arrival of Dr. Franklin in England in 1757, he made several unsuccessful attempts to be introduced to Mr. Pitt: 'but he was then,' says the Doctor, p. 224., 'too great a man or too much occupied in affairs of greater moment.' He had, however, some indirect communication with him through his two secretaries, Mr. Potter and Mr. Wood; and he had thus an opportunity of recommending and enforcing the conquest of Canada: but, in the summer of 1774,

Mr. Pitt, then Lord Chatham, solicited a personal interview with Doctor Franklin; and, after this, the Doctor had several conferences with that nobleman on American affairs. In January, 1775, Lord Chatham communicated to Dr. F. the plan which he had formed for healing the differences in the colonies, and restoring a state of amity between them and Great Britain; and the Doctor was requested by his Lordship to consider his plan attentively, and to communicate any remarks which the perusal might suggest. On Tuesday, January 31st, 1775, Dr. Franklin went to see Lord Chatham at his seat at Hayes, in order that they might freely discuss this object. The Doctor had previously made some memorandums of topics on which he meant to enlarge in the interview with this noble peer: but, though, says he, 'I staid near four hours, his Lordship in the manner of, I think, all eloquent persons, was so full and diffuse in supporting every particular I questioned, that there was not time to go through half my memorandums; he is not easily interrupted, and I had such pleasure in hearing him, that I found little inclination to interrupt him.' P. 260. — Though Dr. Franklin was supposed by the public to have had a considerable share in composing the plan of Lord Chatham, the Doctor assures us that all the part which he took in it was to add the single word "*Constitutions*" after "Charters."

On the day following the above-mentioned interview, Lord Chatham 'introduced, explained, and supported his plan' in a most excellent speech in the House of Lords. Dr. Franklin, who was present during the debate, appears to have been excessively disgusted by the immediate rejection of the proposal by a large majority of that assembly; and on this occasion he expresses his indignation with rather more vehemence than is usual with him: remarking of the noble peers that, instead of exercising 'their claim of sovereignty over three millions of virtuous sensible people in America, they appeared to have scarce discretion enough to govern a herd of swine.'

Dr. Franklin finally left London in March, 1775. When he arrived in America, he found the breach between the two countries likely to become irreparable, and this was but too clearly proved by the declaration of independence which took place on the fourth of July in the following year. The public mind in America had been rapidly prepared for this bold decision by the wide circulation of Thomas Paine's celebrated pamphlet intitled, "*Common Sense*;" in furnishing suggestions for which, Dr. Franklin is conjectured to have materially contributed. We shall not enlarge on the important part

part which he acted during the progress of the American war, as the ambassador of the Independents at the French court; nor on the essential services which he rendered to his country and to mankind in the negotiations for peace, because we have sufficiently expatiated on those topics in our late review of his "Private Correspondence."

Before we conclude, we must remark that, with the exception of that part of these memoirs which was written by Dr. Franklin himself, the biography is deficient in continuity. It is composed of disjointed materials: the workmanship is performed by different hands; and that principle of cohesive unity is wanting in the whole, which the pervading influence of a masterly mind could alone have bestowed.

ART. V. *A Letter to the Common Council and Livery of the City of London, on the Abuses existing in Newgate;* showing the Necessity of an immediate Reform in the Management of that Prison. By the Hon. H. G. Bennet, M. P. 8vo. pp. 79. 3s. Ridgway. 1818.

ART. VI. *An Inquiry whether Crime and Misery are produced or prevented by our present System of Prison-Discipline.* By Thomas Fowell Buxton. 8vo. pp. 141. 5s. Boards. Arch. 1818.

THE impolicy of our general system of prison-discipline, — the inconvenient structure of many of our gaols, metropolitan as well as provincial, — and the miserable state, bodily and mental, of the persons confined in them, — have at various periods of the present reign been subjects of inquiry and complaint. By the exertions of some benevolent and energetic individuals, partial improvements have been at times effected; and in some instances an entirely new arrangement has been introduced, the benefits of which have been so apparent and in so great a degree have justified the projectors, that we are surprized to observe that the supporters of the old plan, the evils of which they daily witness, have not been encouraged to try the effect of a radical change. The fact is that, with one or two exceptions, our prisons are still a disgrace to a Christian nation and a civilized age. By the ignorance of those to whom the charge is intrusted, or their apathy, or their obstinacy, — by their want of temper, of patience, of zeal, or of industry, — the suggested and half-tried experiments have been dropped, the judicious regulations have been neglected, and all the former vices, though seen, acknowleged, and deplored, have been revived in their full extent. It is lamentable, indeed, to think

that only where the happiness or the misery of our unfortunate though criminal fellow-creatures is at stake, the lessons of experience are not productive of their usual instruction: — but, if even a temporary improvement results from the occasional interference of men whose souls are touched with the misery which they behold, we must rejoice that "they peep out once an age," though we may regret the probable inefficacy of their suggestions, as far as future generations are concerned.

No time can be more favourable than the present for reviving inquiry and for endeavouring to remedy defects on this important subject. The peaceful state of the country leaves the patriot comparatively unemployed, and deprives man, who requires some renewed stimulus, of that on which almost his existence depends. It therefore affords leisure and inclination to many to look minutely into evils, which, when in a state of hostile activity, they could only view at a distance; and the spirit of religion and benevolence, which prevails in the present times, makes men in general more disposed to exert themselves in the labours of charity, and to bestow their personal aid where formerly they gave only their approbation or their pence.

The cause has been fortunate also in its advocates. In Mr. Bennet, it has a gentleman who can produce the amplest testimonials of his zeal, activity, and perseverance, in the voluminous evidence taken before the Police-Committee over which he presided; and who has energy and ability to support in the House of Commons the measures of which his experience has proved the necessity. Mr. Buxton is not so generally known: but we have reason to believe that the circle of his private charities is very extensive; and that, in a part of the metropolis in which the severest misery was felt, he has been most actively useful. The book now before us, which he has recently published, gives also a clear and satisfactory proof of his powers and capacity, and is altogether a most interesting performance. The facts mentioned in it are not only well collected but well authenticated; being in every instance supported by the testimony either of the gaolers themselves, or of some magistrate who has the means of information. The deductions from those facts are also ably and effectively drawn: the author's appeal to the reason of the supporters of the present system is temperate yet powerful; and, by a nervous and manly style, he attracts the attention of his readers, while he fixes it by the important particulars which he relates and the forcible arguments which he uses. His book, we have no doubt, will open the eyes of

of many, and conquer the apathy of others, to the evils of which he gives so affecting a description; and we trust that it will induce some individuals in the neighbourhood of each of the provincial gaols personally to inspect them, and to report their state and their regulations to the "Society for the Improvement of Prison-Discipline, and for the Reformation of Juvenile Offenders," since a general knowlege of existing evils will conduce most powerfully to a general improvement.

Mr. Bennet's pamphlet is confined to the consideration of Newgate, and contains many particulars which were noticed before the Police-Committee, and by us in our review of its proceedings: to these, therefore, it is unnecessary for us to recall the reader's attention. To give, however, a general idea of the state of Newgate, it may be well to extract the following short passage from Mr. Poynder's evidence, here reprinted:

'One object of confinement is the withdrawing the criminal for a time from the companions of his former life, and from the evil courses to which he has been addicted, in order that, by such retirement, leisure and opportunity may be afforded for an alteration of conduct. Upon the present system, he associates with the same companions, talks the same language, and enjoys the same vices to which he has been accustomed in the world. So far, therefore, as the criminal is concerned, he remains the same character still. Nor is the general aggregate of crime lessened by his confinement, since it can be proved, *that, from the facility of intercourse, which subsists between the interior and exterior of Newgate, some of the worst and most extensive burglaries and robberies have been plotted in that prison. Forged notes have been both fabricated and passed there, and coining itself has been carried on within its walls.*'

The picture of the condemned cells is most deplorable. They are in number 15, each being 9 feet long by 7 wide, furnished with one bedstead, in which it is stated that two persons *may* lie, but which was designed only for one. *Three*, however, are very often confined in each, so that they then contain 45 persons; and in February, 1817, 100 persons were under sentence of death. About one in ten or twelve is executed; sometimes three, four, and even six months elapse before their fate is determined; and, when the day is fixed for execution, those who are to suffer are not separated from their respited companions. 'The unhappy lad Vartie, who was lately executed, complained heavily of the company in which he was associated; and justly considered the enormity of this treatment, as one of the greatest of his afflictions, and as an aggravation of his cruel fate.'

When

When the pamphlet was written, fifteen boys under twenty years of age were in the condemned cells, two of whom were thirteen and nine years old; and Mr. Bennet pathetically calls the attention of the Common Council to a recent order of the magistrates, which has not only prevented the *Ordinary* from placing these infants in the school, but has obliged the *keeper to put them in irons.* This is indeed a 'mischievous mandate,' the policy of which it is difficult to understand. We are very sorry to read the disheartening account of the school established in the prison by Mr. Cotton, the Ordinary. May Mr. Bennet prove in this instance a false prophet; and may an establishment, which must be productive of so much benefit, revive from its sinking state, and remove some at least of the evils which teem in this disgusting place!

Mr. Buxton describes from personal observation the miseries of the Borough-Compter, Tothill-fields' Prison, the Gaols at St. Alban's, and at Guildford. In all of these, the evil of non-classification and the use of irons exist.

The Borough-Compter belongs to the City of London; and let the Corporation of that city blush when they read the ensuing facts:

'The length of each of the rooms, exclusive of a recess, in which were tables and the fire-place, is twenty feet. Its breadth is three feet and six inches for a passage, and six feet for the bed. In this space, twenty feet long, and six wide, on eight straw beds, with sixteen rugs, and a piece of timber for a bolster, twenty prisoners had slept side by side the preceding night: I maintained that it was physically impossible; but the prisoners explained away the difficulty by saying, "they slept edgeways." Amongst these twenty, was one in a very deplorable condition; he had been taken from a sick bed, and brought there; he had his mattress to himself, for none would share it; and indeed my senses convinced me, that sleeping near him must be sufficiently offensive.

'I was struck with the appearance of one man, who seemed much dejected; he had seen better times, and was distressed to be placed in such a situation. He said he had slept next to the wall, and was literally unable to move, from the pressure. In the morning, the stench and heat were so oppressive, that he and every one else on waking, rushed, unclothed as they must be, into the yard; and the turnkey told me, that "the smell on the first opening of the door, was enough to turn the stomach of a horse."'—

'I have seen many hospitals and infirmaries, but never one, to the best of my belief, in which the patients exhibited so much ill health. The following facts deserve attention: on my second visit, there were thirteen persons confined on criminal charges, of whom five were under the surgeon's hands, as cases of typhus fever.

fever. On my first visit we observed, in one of the cells, a lad in bed, and seemingly very ill with typhus fever; the window was closed, and the reason given was, that the air would be dangerous to him; yet the preceding night two other prisoners had slept with him in a room seven feet by nine. The three were,

'James M'Intosh, charged with felony.

'Thomas Williams, ——— with stealing a piece of gingham.

'Jeremiah Noble, ——— with an assault.

And no alteration was intended, neither indeed was any possible.

'We conceived that to place others, for the night, in this corrupt and infected air, close by the source of that infection, was inevitably to taint them with disease. This conjecture was unhappily verified; for at my next coming, I observed in the list of those who had been seized with fever, the names of Thomas Williams, and Jeremiah Noble. Now, mark the case of Jeremiah Noble; he is charged with an assault, and the law condems him to a short imprisonment, preparatory to his trial. But the regulations of the city inflict on him, in addition, a disease very dangerous in its nature, very suffering in its progress, and very enfeebling in its consequences. The vigour of his constitution may surmount it, but all prisoners have not vigorous constitutions: thus the most venial offence, which calls down the visitation of the law, a debt of one shilling, or a fraud to the amount of one penny, may be punished with a lingering and painful death.'

All the prisoners of course looked ill, and Mr. Buxton was positively able to guess their length of confinement by their appearance; an experiment which he successfully tried in the presence of his companions. Yet this prison has no infirmary, and the sick debtor is separated from the others merely by a blanket: but, when a criminal is ill, 'there is generally no separation at all.' It appears also in evidence that the proximity of the male debtors to the female prisoners is such as not to prevent the likelihood of promiscuous intercourse; there is but one yard with one privy for men and women; and every woman must pass through this yard.

'No cooking utensils are provided. The allowance of food is fourteen ounces of bread per day, and one pound of the "clods and stickings of beef" twice per week. I maintain that this is a system of starvation.' —

'No provision of labour is appointed. At my first visit to the debtors, by the kindness of the jailer, some were employed in making shoes and clothes, and expressed their gratitude, for the ease to their minds, and the relief to their families, which this labour afforded; one, the father of a large family, was engaged in repairing his *children's* shoes. But when I next went, the crowded state of the prison rendered work impossible. As I stood in the yard, instead of hearing as I have elsewhere heard, the sounds so grateful in a prison, the rap of the hammer, and the vibrations of the shuttle, our ears were assailed with loud laughter, and the most

most fearful curses; when we entered, we saw three separate parties at cards, one man reading a novel, and one sitting in a corner intent upon his Bible.

'No soap is allowed; there is no school; and a prisoner, when he arrives, is turned in amongst the rest without any examination as to the state of his health. This may account for a remark in the apothecary's book, January 5th, 1818.—"Some of the prisoners have contracted the itch." The case of one man struck me much: he was found in a most pitiable state in the streets, and apprehended as a vagrant; he was at first placed with the debtors, but he was so filthy and so covered with vermin, (to use the expression of the turnkey, "he was so lousy,") that his removal was solicited. I saw him lying on a straw-bed, as I believed, at the point of death, without a shirt, inconceivably dirty, so weak as to be almost unable to articulate, and so offensive as to render remaining a minute with him quite intolerable; close by his side, four other untried prisoners had slept the preceding night, inhaling the stench from this mass of putrefaction, hearing his groans, breathing the steam from his corrupted lungs, and covered with myriads of lice from his rags of clothing; of these, his wretched companions, three were subsequently pronounced by the verdict of a jury "not guilty," and of these one was Noble, whose case I have before described.'

Well may Mr. Buxton refer to the reader's determination the question 'whether crime and misery are produced or prevented in the Borough-Compter!'

Tothill-fields' prison, Westminster, is below high-water-mark, and is most grievously affected with damp. The consequence is that, out of 2000 who pass through the prison in every year, about 150 on an average are afflicted with acute rheumatism. Debtors in this prison are subjected to 20 days' confinement for a debt under 20 shillings, and to 40 for a debt under 40 shillings.

'Thus persons may be and *have been* sent here for 20 days, for a debt of 2*s.* 6*d.* and no provision is appointed for them. They are not legitimately entitled to one ounce of bread. It is presumed they do not want it. It is presumed that those who are confessedly unable to ransom themselves from this destructive dungeon, by a petty payment, are competent to support themselves while within it. One would have thought that the man who comes here gives a sufficient demonstration of his poverty; but, as if it were a conclusive proof of his riches, it is presumed, without any investigation, that no allowance to him is necessary; if he be, (what ninety-nine out of every hundred, who are arrested for debts under twenty shillings are) a pauper, he must depend upon charity—or he must draw his subsistence from his family, who, already distressed, are rendered utterly destitute by the suspension of his labour—or he must starve; or the jailer, by a charitable violation of rule, must grant him provisions. Surely the humanity and fairness of these presumptions ought to

be re-considered, especially when it is recollected that a coroner's inquest in October last, on the body of John Burden, declared, that he died for want of proper nourishment.'

The Borough-Gaol at St. Alban's is a *wooden* building. The females are confined during the day in a room of which the window is open to the street, and in the night are separated from the men merely by an *open* railing, the bars of which are about *six inches* distant from each other; and the only air or light admitted to the apartment of the men comes through this lattice. The only light to their day-room is through the crevices of a hole at the top of the room. The allowance of food is one pound and a half of bread per day, and no firing is provided: but fortunately the culprits committed here are very few in number. The two prisons in the Abbey of St. Alban's gateway have similar disadvantages, except that in one 'the men are employed in making straw-hats, baskets,' &c.

In Guildford-Gaol, the dimensions of the day-room for all the prisoners, amounting then to 35 and sometimes to 100, are only 9 feet 10 inches by 9 feet 6 inches, and 8 feet 3 inches high; so that, in the severest weather, many must be necessarily unable to obtain shelter, unless they are contented to be shut up all the day in their sleeping cells, with unclosed windows and without fire. The prison has no infirmary, — no chapel, — no work, — no classification, — and no privy. The irons are remarkably heavy; no prison-dress is allowed; and nearly half of the prisoners were without shirts, or shoes, or stockings. — It appears, however, from Mr. Buxton's statement, 'that the magistrates of Surrey are not insensible of the condition of this and their other prisons; and have come to a determination to erect establishments, suitable for the confinement, separation, employment, and reformation of their prisoners.'

The House of Correction at Chelmsford, the County and the Town-Gaols at Kingston, the Houses of Correction in Horsemonger-Lane, and in Cold-Bath-Fields, were also visited by Mr. Buxton, who points out cursorily some of the prominent evils in all of them.

Such are the principal facts produced by this humane and indefatigable writer; and they will of themselves be sufficient to shew that a material change is necessary, without entering minutely into reasons, or causes, or consequences. They appeal forcibly to the feelings; and they must satisfy the most superficial observer that a system, which incarcerates his fellow-men not only with a total want of *comforts* (to which, perhaps, they may not be intitled,) but with every aggra-

aggravation of misery that can render existence hateful, is not such as ought to be allowed to continue. Mr. Buxton, however, successfully proves, farther, that it tends directly to the encouragement of the evils which it professes to punish and prevent; that it increases both crime and misery; that it is contrary to the law of the land; and *that it is totally unnecessary.* — Imprisonment is sometimes ordered for punishment, and sometimes merely for safe custody till the day of trial. In various cases, bail for appearance is allowed to be given; and in all cases, as Lord Coke says, "The law did highly hate the long imprisonment of any man" before trial. Yet no difference is now made between the tried and the untried in the nature of their imprisonment; — the latter endure all the hardships of the former; — and an innocent man suffers, before trial, the same punishment to which his conviction would probably have condemned him.

'Now it is not to be believed that our ancestors, feeling so much solicitude for the conservation of the freedom of the untried, were unconcerned about their state, when the public welfare demanded their confinement. It is as evident by the law of the land, as it is by plain reason and the palpable rules of justice, that the man whom it is found expedient to confine should be treated with the utmost possible lenity, — that suffering some degree of necessary hardship by the privation of his liberty before trial, that privation should be rendered as mild and as little galling as possible, by every reasonable indulgence compatible with his safe custody. All beyond this, every act which produces needless restriction or suffering is an act of wrong and of oppression. — Laws may be as severe against crime as were the laws of Draco, with some colour of justice: mistaken legislators may imagine that this merciless system may alarm mankind into innocence; but no principle of justice can defend the infliction of any severities on the unconvicted. A man can avoid the penalties of crime, by avoiding all criminality; but no man is secure against false accusation; and to condemn him who is only suspected, to any thing beyond mere confinement, is to commence his punishment when his crime is uncertain.'

'The law of the land also appoints imprisonment for debt:' — 'but it is *only imprisonment*, and it must not be accompanied with unnecessary and often fatal concomitants.'

'With respect, then, to the untried and debtors, confinement is adjudged by law; but whatever goes beyond mere confinement, whatever has a tendency to impart moral or physical evil, to disgust or to irritate their feelings, is injustice; — and injustice the more dreadful, because it is inflicted on a class of men who are already too often weighed down by misfortune — because it is inflicted in places where the public eye does not penetrate, where, therefore, public compassion is not excited; but whether it be more

more or less dreadful, is not so much the question. This, I conceive, is certain, that any unnecessary severity to the prisoner who has not been tried, or the prisoner for debt, is injustice.'

Mr. B. next argues the case of the convicted delinquent, the hardship of which he acknowleges to be less evident.

'On the first view of the subject, we are apt to imagine that this is a part of his punishment; but it is not so in the contemplation of the law.—That law ascertains the nature, and in some cases the Judge determines the quantum of the punishment, according to the aggravations of the crimes; but the penalty thus pronounced is all that is to be inflicted: where the law, therefore, condemns a man simply to be committed to jail, the suspension of his personal liberty is the utmost which he ought to suffer; and to embitter his confinement by circumstances often much worse than the loss of liberty itself is to aggravate and distort the law, and to annex severities which are not awarded by its sentence. I am well aware that the law itself, in certain cases, renders imprisonment more rigorous by express provisions:—In cases of murder, "the offender shall be fed with bread and water only, and confined in a cell apart from the other prisoners;" but this peculiar severity, appointed in certain cases, implies that it is not to be exercised in others where no such appointment is made.'

Let those who hesitate in the adoption of this opinion consider the injustice and difficulties attending a contrary plan. The limited size of our prisons prevents the application of any different measure of punishment to different degrees of guilt;

'And who is to apportion this variety of wretchedness? The Judge who knows nothing of the interior of the jail, or the jailer who knows nothing of the transactions of the Court? The law can easily suit its penalties to the circumstances of the case. It can adjudge to one offender imprisonment for one day; to another, for twenty years; but what ingenuity would be sufficient to devise, and what discretion could be trusted to inflict, modes of imprisonment with similar variations?'

This is all well put, and is supported by the quoted authority of Bracton, the Fleta, and Lord Coke:

'Let us follow a prisoner from his first commitment, always remembering that as yet his guilt is unproved. You have no right to march him along the streets in chains, or to make him a spectacle of public ignominy, perhaps on the very spot, and amongst the very people with whom he has hitherto held a fair character.—Infamy may be the penalty for crime, but it should never be the consequence of suspicion: you should, therefore, conduct him to his jail with every possible attention to his feelings, with decency and secrecy. When he is entered within its walls, you have no right to load him with irons; you have no right to

subject

subject him to bodily pain from their weight, or to that agony of mind, which must result from such symbols of degradation to a man of yet unblunted feelings; and you have no right to conclude that he is not such. And here I must observe in the language of Blackstone *, "The law will not justify jailers in fettering a prisoner, unless where he is unruly, or has attempted an escape."'—

'You have no right to abridge him of pure air, wholesome and sufficient food, and opportunities of exercise. You have no right to debar him from the craft on which his family depends, if it can be exercised in prison. You have no right to subject him to suffering from cold, by want of bed-clothing by night, or firing by day; and the reason is plain,—you have torn him from his home, and have deprived him of the means of providing himself with the necessaries or comforts of life, and therefore you are bound to furnish him with moderate, indeed, but suitable accommodation.

'You have for the same reason no right to ruin his habits, by compelling him to be idle; his morals, by compelling him to mix with a promiscuous assemblage of hardened and convicted criminals; or his health, by forcing him at night into a damp unventilated cell, with such crowds of companions, as very speedily to render the air foul and putrid; or to make him sleep in close contact with the victims of contagious and loathsome disease, or amidst the noxious effluvia of dirt and corruption. In short, attention to his feelings mental and bodily, a supply of every necessary, abstraction from evil society, the conservation of his health and industrious habits, are the clear, evident, undeniable rights of an unconvicted prisoner.'—

'At his trial, either he is acquitted,—in which case the least you can do, is to replace him in the situation you found him, to pay his expences home, and to furnish him with sufficient to support him till he has had an opportunity of looking out for work: or he is convicted,—and then it is for the law to appoint the punishment which is to follow his offence. That punishment must be inflicted, but you must carefully guard that it be not aggravated, and that circumstances of severity are not found in his treatment, which are not found in his sentence. Now no Judge ever condemned a man to be half starved with cold by day, or half suffocated with heat by night; who ever heard of a criminal being sentenced to catch the rheumatism or the typhus fever? Corruption of morals and contamination of mind are not the remedies which the law in its wisdom has thought proper to adopt.—

'The convicted delinquent then has his rights.—All measures and practices in prison which may injure him in any way are illegal, because they are not specified in his sentence:—he is, therefore, entitled to an wholesome atmosphere, decent clothing and bedding, and a diet sufficient to support him.'

Mr. Buxton then points out the duties that are owed to the community:

'* Book iv. c. 22.'

'One

'One of the most important of these duties is, that you should not send forth the man committed to your tuition, in any respect a worse man, a less industrious, or a less sober, or a less competent man than when he entered your walls. Good policy requires that, if possible, you should dismiss him improved.'

To effect this object, attention should be paid to his health, to his habits, to his occupation, to the improvement of his morals, the repentance of his crime, and the consequent reformation of his life. For this purpose, seclusion is necessary, and he should therefore sleep alone; — to this purpose, idleness is adverse, and therefore work should be given to him, of which, to make it agreeable, he should share in the profits: — stimulating liquors are inimical, and they must therefore be strictly forbidden; — and the hours of education for the young, as well as religious duties for all, should not be neglected.

The mode in which 'these rights are violated and this policy is abandoned in England' is then forcibly displayed; the existence of the facts is fully proved by the details which we have already presented; and their illegality is shewn by several statutes of Charles II., and the present King, the provisions of which are here abstracted. Of one of these statutes, (24 Geo. III. c. liv. § 4.) the Borough-Compter alone furnishes eleven violations. In speaking of the proximity of males and females in this prison, and the appropriation of only one court-yard to their necessary purposes, the author suggests the following *supposeable* case:

'Females are sometimes accused of offences, of which they afterwards demonstrate their innocence. Maid servants, in respectable families, of hitherto unblemished reputation, may be, and are, often charged in error, with purloining small articles belonging to their master or mistress. Imagine an innocent girl, who had hitherto been shielded from even allusions to vice, brought to this prison, and placed at once within the view and within the range of this unbridled harlotry. Can her mind escape pollution? Can she shut her eyes and her ears to the scenes which are passing around her? Is not residence in this place (however innocent she may have been of the imputed crime) an eternal stain upon her character? The law is justly jealous of female reputation; but here, as if forgetful of its own principles, it robs the unprotected and often innocent girl of her fair name, exposes her virtue to temptation, and places before her eyes vice in its worst and most degrading realities. To answer to all this, that those who come here cannot be made worse, is to say, that female debtors are always prostitutes, and that accusation is proof. I can well conceive that where prisoners are guilty of some petty offence alleged against them, yet that they may not be utterly depraved; a girl for the gratification of her vanity may secrete an article of dress; she is very wrong, but because she has descended one step in the

scale of vice, it does not follow inevitably, that she has fallen to its lowest abominations.'

At Guildford, we have the following *real* case:

'Many years ago, a lad of the name of John Haines was sent from the country, charged with an assault; in prison he formed a connection with a female, with whom he afterwards lived: he became one of the most noted highwaymen that ever infested the neighbourhood of London, and was executed.'

That such has been, and still may be, the frequent consequence of a temporary confinement under the present system, who for a moment can doubt?

Mr. Buxton allows that he does nothing in shewing that these evils exist, unless he manifests that they might have been prevented. To prove 'that instead of health being impaired, it may be improved; that instead of morals being corrupted, they may be reformed; that these objects, so desirable to the state, may be accomplished by methods humane to the criminal, by a system of classification, industry, and religious instruction,' he explains the system practised at the Gaol and House of Correction at Bury, at the Maison de Force at Ghent, at the Prison at Philadelphia, at the Penitentiary, Millbank, and, which we might imagine would inspirit the weakest heart, on the female-side in Newgate.

'*Bury Jail* is the best constructed of any that I have seen in England; the regulations by which it is governed are exceedingly wise and humane; and it possesses the grand requisite of a Governor, who discharges his duty with equal zeal and fidelity.

'The nature of the building will be easily understood. An external wall surrounds the whole: the Governor's house is in the center; from its windows every yard is visible, and it is hardly possible, that any breach of the rules can be practised without being observed, either by himself or some one of his family. He told me that the experience of twenty years as a jailer had taught him that the main points for prison discipline, for the security, morals, and health of the prisoners, are, —

'Classification — Employment — and Cleanliness.

'Classification is carried to almost its greatest limit.'

Each prisoner sleeps in a separate cell by himself, unless the prison is crowded, in which case the Governor 'places three together; having had reason to apprehend that two, sleeping in the same cell, are productive of mischief.' — The greatest attention is paid to cleanliness. Irons are never used but as a punishment. Gaming and spirituous liquors are forbidden. It is in the option of every untried prisoner whether he will work; 'and to encourage his labour the whole amount of his earnings is given him.'

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'The earnings of the convicts are divided in the following manner: — one-fifth to the Governor, two-fifths to the county, two-fifths to the prisoner, of which he receives half, and half is reserved till his departure. Then also sufficient is given him to carry him home, and a small sum to support him, till he can look out for work.'—

'The work consists in making clothes, shoes, list-shoes, straw-hats, &c.; and grinding at a mill, of a peculiar construction, somewhat similar to a turn-spit. They walk in rows, and the machine is turned rather by their weight than their exertions. The advantage is, that no man can avoid his share of labour.'—

'The beds are of iron; a straw palliasse, two blankets, and a rug. The food is, for untried, one pound and a half of bread per day, and one pound of cheese per week; with an addition of one pound of meat per week for convicts, whose work at the mill is hard, and, therefore, requires further nourishment. It was formerly the practice to dress their meat, and to furnish them with soups, but, at the request of the Governor, this has been discontinued, as he finds it necessary for the purpose of giving a proper moral influence to the Governor, that he should be, not only above fraud, but above the suspicion of it; and this suspicion might be generated, if they do not receive their provisions in a raw state.

'There is an infirmary in every ward, and Bibles and prayer-books. The Governor seldom goes round without being solicited for permission to learn to read and write.

'This is accomplished by giving small rewards to those in each ward who have capacity and inclination to teach others. Almost all, therefore, who remain any length of time, learn these important accomplishments, and he always has found a great avidity in the prisoners to be instructed.

'Almost every man who remains after conviction learns some trade, which may hereafter be an aid to his family, if it does not become his regular business; for instance, all the convicts for atrocious crimes have learned to make list-shoes, and straw-hats. This trade they exercise in the intervals when they are not employed at the mill, and they contrive to earn for themselves, from one to about three shillings per week. The Governor thinks that prisoners ought not to be employed, merely or principally as a speculation of profit; because, the produce of such labour, from fluctuations in its value, and from the inexpertness of the workmen, may often be very inconsiderable: but he deems it a matter of vital importance, that they should be employed, from the moral effect produced. If there were no gain, if there were a loss by their labour, he would still employ them and pay them for their work, as the only method of avoiding disturbances, improving their character, and insuring their security.

'He thinks that no general rules relative to solitary confinement ought to be made, because of its different effect on different people. Some years ago he had two men (as he thinks) from the same farm-yard, condemned to solitary confinement; one, a stupid sluggish fellow, slept away his time; the other, an active, energetic

man, was almost driven out of his senses, so much so as to render it necessary to relax his punishment.'

Now, what are the results of this plan? The prisoners are healthy, happy, and obedient; in every 100 prisoners, not five are found who have been there before; and riots, quarrelling, or swearing, are unknown.

We have devoted so large a space to this prison, that we must wholly omit the interesting account of those at Ghent and Philadelphia. Indeed, we have purposely done this, to shew that nothing occurs in the English law, or in the English character, to prevent the improvement which has been so effectual at Bury from being carried into every other gaol in the kingdom. We must also refrain from allotting much room to the consideration of the Penitentiary at Millbank. Suffice it to say that, while the system on which it was founded was practised to its full extent, its advantages were prominent. Let not, therefore, its managers be deterred by any temporary want of work, or by other minor difficulties, from persevering strictly in the line marked out: but let them follow Mr. Buxton's recommendations; and let them remember the result of perseverance at Philadelphia, where a few individuals, — in opposition to popular prejudice, and private opinion, — notwithstanding general derision, and personal obstacles, — succeeded at last in introducing so satisfactory an alteration in the prison-discipline, that 'the current of public favour had entirely turned. Not one man in America doubted the efficacy of the system; the Judges were its most strenuous supporters, it was made a permanent law, and the example of Philadelphia was generally followed.'

Somewhat similar in effect are the extraordinarily interesting proceedings of the Ladies' Committee at Newgate. To give some idea of their exertions, it is necessary to describe the former state of the women, as seen by Mrs. Fry, the benevolent projector of this improvement, and her female friends:

'Nearly three hundred women, sent there for every gradation of crime, some untried, and some under sentence of death, were crowded together in the two wards and two cells, which are now appropriated to the untried, and which are found quite inadequate to contain even this diminished number, with any tolerable convenience. Here they saw their friends, and kept their multitudes of children, and they had no other place for cooking, washing, eating, and sleeping.

'They slept on the floor at times one hundred and twenty in one ward, without so much as a mat for bedding, and many of them were very nearly naked. She saw them openly drinking spirits, and her ears were offended by the most terrible imprecations. Every thing was filthy to excess, and the smell was quite disgusting.

gusting. Every one, even the Governor, was reluctant to go amongst them. He persuaded her to leave her watch in the office, telling her that his presence would not prevent its being torn from her. She saw enough to convince her that every thing bad was going on. One act, which I received from another quarter, marks the degree of wretchedness to which they were reduced at that time. Two women were seen in the act of stripping a dead child, for the purpose of clothing a living one.'—

'Want of employment was the subject of their continual lamentation. They complained that they were compelled to be idle, and that having nothing else to do, they were obliged to pass away the time in doing wrong.—As Mrs. Fry had then no hopes of any provision of labour, her design was confined to about thirty children, whose miserable condition much affected her. They were almost naked, and seemed pining away for want of food, air, and exercise; but their personal sufferings was the least part of their wretchedness; what but certain ruin must be the consequence of education in this scene of depravity? At her second visit she requested to be admitted alone, and was locked up with the women without any turnkey, for several hours; when she mentioned to those who had families, how grievous and deplorable she considered the situation of their offspring, and her desire to concur with them in establishing a school; the proposal was received, even by the most abandoned, with tears of joy. They said they knew too well the misery of sin, to wish to have their children brought up in it; that they were ready to do any thing which she might direct, for it was horrible, even to them, to hear their infants utter oaths and filthy expressions, amongst the first words they learned to articulate. She desired them maturely to consider the plan, for that she would not undertake it without their full and steady co-operation; but that if they were determined to persevere in doing their part, she would do hers, and that the first step would be to appoint a governess. This she left entirely to them, and they were to consider who was the most proper person for that appointment.'

A governess was nominated, and the school succeeds;—and, as benevolence is never satisfied with its efforts, the ladies felt 'earnest and increasing solicitude to extend their institution, and to comprehend within its range the tried prisoners. This desire was confirmed by the solicitations of the women themselves, who entreated that they might not be excluded. Their zeal for improvement, and their assurances of good behaviour, were powerful motives, and they tempted these ladies to project a school for the employment of the tried women, for teaching them to read, and to work.' The project was ridiculed as visionary, but the ladies persevered and proved it to be practicable. A 'committee immediately presented itself; it consisted of the wife of a clergyman, and eleven members of the Society of Friends. They professed

their willingness to suspend every other engagement and avocation, to devote themselves to Newgate; and, in truth, they have performed their promise.' The proper powers were consulted, their consent was obtained, work was procured, and rules were submitted to the prisoners, in which they unanimously concurred. The plan was tried, and at the end of a month the Lord Mayor, &c. &c. attended to view its progress.

'The prisoners were assembled together, and it being requested that no alteration in their usual practice might take place, one of the ladies read a chapter in the Bible, and then the females proceeded to their various avocations. Their attention during the time of reading; their orderly and sober deportment, their decent dress, the absence of every thing like tumult, noise, or contention, the obedience, and the respect shewn by them, and the cheerfulness visible in their countenances and manners, conspired to excite the astonishment and admiration of their visitors.

'Many of these knew Newgate, had visited it a few months before, and had not forgotten the painful impressions made by a scene, exhibiting, perhaps, the very utmost limits of misery and guilt. They now saw, what, without exaggeration, may be called a transformation. Riot, licentiousness, and filth, exchanged for order, sobriety, and comparative neatness in the chamber, the apparel, and the persons of the prisoners. They saw no more an assemblage of abandoned and shameless creatures, half naked and half drunk, rather demanding, than requesting charity. The prison no more resounded with obscenity, and imprecations, and licentious songs; and, to use the coarse, but the just, expression of one who knew the prison well, "this hell upon earth" exhibited the appearance of an industrious manufactory, or a well regulated family.

'The magistrates, to evince their sense of the importance of the alterations which had been effected, immediately adopted the whole plan as a part of a system of Newgate, empowered the ladies to punish the refractory by short confinement, undertook part of the expense of the matron, and loaded the ladies with thanks and benedictions.'

The system was afterward introduced among the untried prisoners, at their earnest request, and is now successfully proceeding among them all. 'The result of the observations of the ladies has been, that where the prisoners, from whatever cause, did no work, they derived little, if any, moral advantage; where they did some work, they received some benefit; and where they were fully engaged, they were really and essentially improved.' Mr. Buxton says; 'In the infirmary I saw a woman, who was represented as near her end. She spoke very feelingly of the ladies, adding, "all the comforts around me, and all the consolation of my mind, are owing to them."'

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We shall close our extracts with the following anecdote, 'displaying the efficacy of the system pursued.'

'A session had just closed, many of the former prisoners were sent away, and many new ones were received. A report was circulated that gaming was still practised in the prison: one of the ladies went there alone, and assembled the prisoners together, she told them what she had heard, and that she feared it was true; she dwelt upon the sin of gaming, its evil effect upon their minds, the interruption it gave, and the distaste it excited, to labour; and she concluded by telling them, how much the belief of that report had grieved her, and how gratified she should be, if, either from consideration for themselves, or kindness to her, they should be disposed to relinquish the practice. Soon after she retired to the ladies' room, one of the prisoners came to her, expressed, in a manner which indicated real feeling, her sorrow for having broken the rules of so kind a friend, and gave her a pack of cards; and four others did the same. Having burnt the cards in their presence, she felt bound to remunerate them for their value, and to mark her sense of their ready obedience by some small present. A few days afterwards she called the first to her, and telling her intention, produced a neat muslin handkerchief. To her surprise, the girl looked disappointed; and, on asking the reason, she confessed that she had hoped that Mrs. —— would have given her a Bible, with her own name written in it, which she should value beyond any thing else, and always keep and read.'

How truly delightful and animating are these representations of female goodness and firmness! May they find many imitators, equally kind, affectionate, and successful!

We have occupied more than an usual space with this subject, because we think that it is of vital importance, and that our readers will be interested in the inquiry. We trust that the forcible and energetic appeal made by Mr. Bennet and Mr. Buxton, to the Corporation of London, will have its proper effect, in opening their eyes to the disgrace of the present system and the vice and misery which it entails; and in rendering them ashamed of the miserable and paltry excuse of poverty, by which they attempt to justify its continuance. In towns like St. Alban's, the expence may for a time prevent all from being done that might be desirable, but something may be effected. While hundreds and thousands of pounds are subscribed towards the erection of temples for public worship, we should consider whether the great object which we have in view, the cause of religion and virtue, will not be even more effectually assisted, morality more extended, and vice receive a more mortal blow, by appropriating funds to the formation of proper prisons, or to their extension in point of size, and amelioration in point of arrangement.

ART. VII. *A Sequel to an Essay on the Yellow Fever*; principally intended to prove, by incontestible Facts and important Documents, that the Fever called Bulam, or Pestilential, has no Existence as a distinct or a contagious Disease. By Edward Nathaniel Bancroft, M. D. Physician to the Army, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 486. 14s. Boards. Callow. 1817.

By an oversight, for which we are now unable to account, we omitted to notice Dr. Bancroft's Essay on the Yellow Fever in the year 1811; an omission the more remarkable because we were acquainted with its contents, and estimated them very highly: but we have now an opportunity, in some degree at least, of remedying the deficiency by giving an ample account of the present performance. In a perspicuous and well-written preface, the author states the reasons for his again appearing in the character of a controversialist: he says that the design of his former essay was to evince generally that the yellow fever was merely 'an aggravated form of that multifarious disease, which is well known to result from the action of those exhalations commonly denominated marsh miasmata, though often extricated from soils and situations which are not marshy:' he also endeavoured to manifest that the fever was not contagious; and he likewise took some pains to controvert the doctrine of Dr. Chisholm, that a new specific contagion was generated at Bulam in 1793, and imported into Grenada by the ship Hankey, which proved the source of all the ravages that have since been committed in the West Indies, in America, and in Spain.

Since the publication of Dr. Bancroft's Essay, two other works have appeared, in which a main object with their respective authors was to controvert his leading positions; viz. Dr. Pym's and Sir James Fellowes's Treatises on the Fever of Andalusia. The express view of both these gentlemen is to prove that the fever which appeared in Spain was derived from and propagated by contagion alone; and that it possessed the remarkable property of attacking the human frame only once, after which the constitution, as in measles and small-pox, was secure from its influence. The very important nature of these opinions, and the equally decided and explicit manner in which they were brought forwards by Dr. Pym, induced the Lords of the Privy Council to apply to the College of Physicians for their judgment on the subject: they gave a favourable although cautious report; and their Lordships afterward called for farther information from the Army-Medical Board, and from the Commissioners for the Service of Transports, Sick and Wounded Seamen, &c. Under these circumstances, when the opinion of Dr. Pym had excited so much

much attention in the highest constituted authorities, and when so much confidence seemed to be every where given to it, Dr. Bancroft, still retaining his former sentiments, and conceiving that no arguments had been brought forwards that were sufficient to refute any of his doctrines, determined again to enter on the discussion.

The present treatise is divided into seven chapters; in the first three of which Dr. Bancroft argues concerning the general nature of the yellow fever, and in the last four examines into the histories of particular epidemics. The first chapter treats on the alleged diagnostic symptoms of the Bulam or pestilential fever. The accuracy of the observations of Dr. Pym and the other physicians who have embraced his doctrine, when they undertake to lay down the diagnostic characters that must enable us to distinguish the disease which they regard as of a specific nature, necessarily lies at the foundation of all the reasoning that we are to employ on the subject, and is therefore very properly examined by Dr. Bancroft with the most scrupulous nicety. Six diagnostics have been pointed out, and each of these is separately considered, with a view both to the constancy of the symptom and the consistency of the writer's description of it. Of these characters, the most important, perhaps, on all accounts, is the absence of remissions in what is styled the Bulam fever; in opposition to the paroxyms of the disease which has, from this very circumstance, obtained the specific name of remittent fever. On this point Dr. B. offers two essential remarks; he first attempts to shew that, although the ordinary form of *miasmatic* fever derives its popular name and most obvious character from the remissions which accompany it, still abundant facts prove that, when it exists in an exasperated degree, the remissions are no longer perceptible. In the second place, he endeavours to manifest that the fever of Andalusia was remittent; and for this fact he quotes not only the express declaration of the Spanish physician, Dr. Arejula, to whom Dr. Pym always refers as the highest authority, but he brings forwards the testimony of many of the English physicians, who seem generally to have noticed sufficiently distinct remissions, except in the most violent cases and under the most unfavorable circumstances. Regarding both these points we think that the present author has been successful, at least as far as it was in his power to establish them by a reference to that which appears the most unexceptionable authority. With respect to the latter, the remittent nature of the Spanish fever, the testimonies are so direct and so uniform,

form, that it is really surprizing that any person could have ventured to advance the opposite opinion.

After having considered in detail the other characteristic symptoms which Dr. Pym lays down, as serving to distinguish what he calls the Bulam fever from the bilious remittent, and pointed out their inadequacy and inconsistency, Dr. B. devotes his second chapter to the examination of the very remarkable fact, or alleged fact, that the Bulam fever occurs only once to the same person; or that, like small-pox and measles, it produces some change in the constitution by which it is rendered ever afterward insusceptible of the disease. Although it may seem partly a work of supererogation to spend any more time in discussing the symptoms of a disease which has not been proved to exist, yet whatever name we may give to the affection, or in whatever light we may view it, whether as a distinct species or merely as a variety, the circumstance is in itself of so much interest, and has been brought forwards by Dr. Pym in so confident a manner and with so much appearance of authority, that it certainly is intitled to a distinct examination. Before he enters on an inquiry into the reality of the fact, Dr. Bancroft offers some remarks respecting the founder of the opinion. Those who have perused Dr. Pym's work must recollect that he distinctly claims the discovery as having been made by himself; and, aware as he is of its great importance were it once firmly established, he takes pains to repel the idea that the Spanish physicians, or indeed any preceding writers, had anticipated him. Dr. Bancroft endeavours to demonstrate that, on this point, Dr. Pym is not correct: but any discussion of this kind is comparatively unimportant when we find that the fact itself is disproved, or at least rendered extremely dubious. Dr. B. roundly asserts that, in evidence of this supposed property of the Bulam fever, nothing has been adduced which ought to be regarded as an unequivocal proof; 'nothing which is not either a manifest misconception, or capable of being well explained by a reference to that state of the constitution which is called seasoning, or to a similar effect known to result from the attack of *any disease*, by which the vigour, excitability, and inflammatory diathesis, produced by a cold or temperate climate, is for a time removed.' In support of this assertion, he examines the facts on which Dr. Pym founds his system; and it appears that they only shew that the seasoning of a hot climate renders the body much less susceptible of fever: while Dr. Pym has inadvertently argued on the supposition that all those who have passed any considerable length of time in the East and West

West Indies must have had yellow fever. A still more direct refutation of the doctrine will, however, be found in the opinions of a great number of medical men, who may be regarded as competent to decide on the question from their opportunities of observation, and which were laid before the Privy Council by the Commissioners in consequence of a direct inquiry instituted on the subject. We cannot attempt to give an abstract of the representations of these gentlemen: but it may be satisfactory to our readers to be made acquainted with their names, as we conceive that they form a body of evidence which will be deemed irrefragable: viz. Drs. Weir, Blair, Gillespie, Gray, Dickson, Burnett, M'Arthur, Denmark, Gardiner, Veitch, Vance, M'Namara, and Magrath; Mr. Mortimer, Mr. Forbes, and Mr. M'Leod. All these practitioners attest either their knowlege or their belief of the frequent occurrence of second attacks of the fever; while, of the eight other opinions that are collected, the individuals either declare their want of sufficient experience to decide the question, or they offer a statement which in no case amounts to a full admission of Dr. Pym's doctrine. A great variety of other testimonies are produced, to prove that the supposed immunity from a second attack is nothing more than the effect which has been always acknowleged to result from a residence in hot climates, or from a loss of vigour in consequence of a first seizure; and Dr. B. thus concludes the chapter:

'I fear that many of my readers will think that I have committed a waste of facts and authorities to disprove allegations which were unworthy of even half the notice here bestowed upon them; but the confidence with which they have been advanced, the importance that has been attached to them, their plausibility, and the strong impression which they appear to have made on the minds of some persons high in political, or in medical rank, have rendered me anxious to dispel the errors to which they were conducive, and spare no pains to annihilate a chimera pregnant with mischief.'

We must give it as our opinion that the efforts of the present author, respecting this essential branch of the inquiry, have been both well directed and eminently successful; the work of Dr. Pym was calculated to make a great impression on the public mind; and we confess that we were among those who were almost convinced by his alleged facts: yet we have no hesitation in declaring that we now conceive ourselves to have been in an error, and that Dr. Bancroft has brought forwards a tenfold weight of evidence on the opposite side of the question.

Dr. B.'s

Dr. B.'s third chapter is not less important than the second; its object being to prove that the Bulam or yellow fever does not possess any contagious property. In the prosecution of this design, the author endeavours first to repel the charges which were brought against him by Dr. Pym. That gentleman professed to examine the various testimonies brought forwards by Dr. Bancroft to support his opinion of the non-contagious nature of yellow fever, and either to refute them or to shew that they were inapplicable to the question; and Dr. Bancroft now re-examines his opponent's examination. In a controversy of this kind, in which the parties accuse each other of mis-quotation, or at least of partial quotation, so that the meaning of a passage has been materially altered, it would be necessary that any person should himself examine the original documents, who undertook absolutely to decide between the two combatants. We may, however, venture to assert that Dr. Bancroft has the advantage so far as to make out the best case; and that he impresses the mind of his readers with the conviction that his account of the sentiments of the writers, whom he presses into his service, is fundamentally correct, that it is not wilfully perverted, and that, fairly taken in the connection in which it is placed, it may be considered as not liable to any of the animadversions that have been cast on it. On the contrary, we rise from the perusal of this chapter with a strong impression that Dr. Pym writes in the character of a special pleader, who desires to establish his own opinion rather than to seek that which is the truest; and that he has been much more anxious to find out arguments to baffle his opponent, than actually to prove that his opponent is in the wrong. As it is impossible for us to follow Dr. B. through the examination of all the individual statements which he adduces on the question of the non-contagious nature of this disease, we shall quote the summary which he gives of them.

'Having stated the opinions delivered in the Reports transmitted to the Privy Council, it may be proper to give a summary of them; and I will therefore mention that, of the twenty-four gentlemen from whom those Reports were obtained, three (Mr. Gregory, Dr. Kein, and Dr. Magrath,) have omitted the statement of any opinion on the subject of contagion, as connected with the fever in question; three others (Dr. Weir, Dr. Blair, and Mr. Tobin,) have expressed their opinions that it is contagious; one of them (Mr. Brien) declares his belief that, in individual or solitary cases, it is "incapable of communicating itself to those who are contiguous," but "that, when several were labouring under the disease at the same time, he believes it to be highly contagious;" and another gentleman (Dr. Gardiner) appears to think, that local

local causes contributed at least as much to the production of the fever at Gibraltar in 1813 as contagion. Of the remaining sixteen, the majority have absolutely and positively denied the existence of any contagious property in this fever; and the rest have declared their belief that it is not naturally or properly a contagious disease, although several of them are inclined to believe that it may (as they suppose to happen with most other diseases) acquire a contagious property by crowding, filth, &c.'

On this important question of contagion, one circumstance very forcibly strikes us; viz. that those persons who admit its existence still limit it to some particular states of the body, or some peculiar condition of the seasons or of the atmosphere; which very much embarrass our inquiry, and render it extremely difficult to make any observation that may be decisive. This is also essentially a different method of proceeding from that which we pursue with respect to the typhus, and other acknowleged contagious fevers of the more temperate latitudes; where the liability to receive the disease, although much greater at some times than at others, still is merely a difference in degree, and not an absolutely different train of actions. With respect to authority, although it is difficult to reject some testimonies that are brought forwards in favour of the doctrine of contagion, still the mass of evidence is greatly on the contrary side; and the facts adduced by the non-contagionists, though they may be said to be negative, are in reality more direct than those which are alleged on the contrary side of the question. As far as Dr. Bancroft's work is concerned, we will not say that the perusal of it has perfectly convinced us of the truth of his opinion: but we can certainly state that he has defended it very ably, has satisfactorily answered the most powerful arguments of his opponents, and has added many positive proofs of the validity of his own doctrine.

The 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th chapters consist principally of discussions on particular cases in which the yellow fever has occurred, and which have been regarded as proving its contagious nature, or some other point respecting it which Dr. Bancroft is disposed to controvert. The subjects of these chapters are as follow; 'of the production of yellow fever on board of vessels by the foulness of their holds, with instances of the Regalia transport, and of the Childers and Antelope, ships of war; and an account of the epidemic fever at Sierra Leone, in Africa:'— 'of the epidemic fever in Spain from 1800 to 1804; with an abstract of Dr. Arejula's chapter on its supposed contagious nature;'— 'of the epidemics at Gibraltar from 1804 to 1814,' with proofs of its local

local origin, and non-contagious nature;' — 'of the epidemics in Spain from 1810 to 1814; also at Stony-Hill in Jamaica from 1808 to 1816, and in Barbadoes in 1816.' All this part, however, we are compelled by want of room to pass over; and we shall only remark concerning it that it displays the same acuteness in detecting the weak points of his opponents, and in taking every advantage of the circumstances which are in his favour, that we have noticed in the author's former chapters.

Dr. Bancroft subjoins to these chapters a few pages under the title of 'Conclusion;' in which he reverts to some of the principal facts and arguments that have been employed, in order to disprove the existence of contagion in the yellow fever. He remarks, and certainly with justice, that the believers in contagion 'are bound by the laws of evidence, as well as the rules of logic, to prove the *affirmative*.' He then continues;

'This indeed has been attempted, particularly by Dr. Pym; but my readers will, I trust, have been convinced that his, and all other, attempts have wholly failed, and that there is not a single diagnostic symptom, or other peculiarity, among all those which have been alledged to give a *distinct* character to this disease, which is not either illusive, or capable of being applied with equal truth to other forms of marsh or miasmatic fever. With equal justice may we require that those, who assert this supposed form of fever to possess, and to have been imported and propagated by, a contagious power, should prove the *affirmative*, and both explain and ascertain the time *when*, and the means or vehicles *whereby*, as well as the places *whence*, such importations were made. But all endeavours to do this have only served to betray a lamentable want of truth in the explanations and allegations employed for this purpose. It must have been highly incumbent on those, who contend for such importations, first to establish that the disease actually possessed a contagious quality *at the places* from which the importations are asserted to have been made; because, without this quality, any importation would have been impossible.'

He afterward adds;

'To suppose the existence of contagion is convenient for those who are too indolent to inquire, or who want the qualifications necessary for accurate discrimination: it is an obvious, easy, and imposing expedient to remove in appearance almost every difficulty, as it accords with the prejudices and apprehensions of the greater part of mankind, who are prone to believe that all diseases are contagious when they become generally prevalent; and, however erroneous the belief may be, it is often extremely difficult to

prove the contrary, because contagion depends upon a cause or quality not cognizable by the senses.'

An argument or mode of reasoning has been employed in this controversy which is scarcely legitimate: but, as it has been adopted on both sides, it was incumbent on Dr. Bancroft not to pass it over unnoticed: we refer to the moral or political effect of the doctrine. The contagionists have attempted to shew that their opinion, although possibly false, is more useful than the contrary idea, prevents much mischief, and can do no harm. D. B., however, warmly opposes this position, and we think points out its futility: the passages in which he insists on this view of the subject are too long for us to quote, but are deserving of a very serious consideration.

We shall sum up our account of this volume in a few words. It is a work of great ability; the author is equally dextrous in refuting his antagonists and in establishing his own opinions; and, if some points yet remain for farther examination, or require a greater body of evidence before they can be regarded as completely established, still his arguments are so cogent that no opponents should assume the contrary hypothesis without pointing out the source of his errors, and manifesting how he has been mistaken in his facts or has deduced a wrong conclusion from them. — Any opinion which we thus give in Dr. Bancroft's favour must be regarded as the more material, because we acknowlege that the apparent respectability of Dr. Pym's work, and the opportunity which we conceived he must have had for ascertaining the truth, biassed us very strongly in his favour; and, though we were perfectly aware of some weak points in his publication, yet it altogether made a strong impression on our minds. Our conviction at present is that no discriminative characters have yet been detected by which the yellow, ardent, or Bulam fever can be distinguished from the violent forms of the bilious remittent; that we have no proof of its being contagious; that the human body is liable to more than one attack of it; and that the various epidemics which have occurred in the West Indies, America, and Spain, since the year 1793, are not essentially different from those which appeared before that period.

ART. VIII. *Report from the Select Committee on the Poor-Laws;* with the Minutes of Evidence taken before the Committee. Ordered by the House of Commons to be printed July 4. 1817. 8vo. pp. 240. Clement.

ART. IX. *An Inquiry into the Nature of Benevolence,* chiefly with a View to elucidate the Principles of the Poor-Laws, and to show their Immoral Tendency. By J. E. Bicheno, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 145. 4s. 6d. sewed. Hunter. 1817.

ART. X. *Considerations on the Poor-Laws,* and the Treatment of the Poor; with Suggestions for making the Public Annuitants contributory to their Support. By One of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace. 8vo. pp. 64. Ridgway. 1817.

SELDOM, perhaps, has the truth of the old adage, "*it is much easier to find out a fault than to mend one,*" been more forcibly displayed than in the discussions which, from time to time, but particularly within these few years, have taken place respecting the justice and policy of our system of poor-laws. Many — it may be a majority — of those who have entered into this discussion have contented themselves with coming to a conclusion, which, on all subjects, it requires no great portion of time, of labour, or of brains to form, that the whole system is radically defective; — and there they have stopped, forgetting that the whole *utile* of their lucubrations must be confined to the proposition of something like a *radical* cure for so *radical* a disease. This, however, some of them have suggested in the very obvious and sweeping expedient of annihilating all legislative enactments on the subject, and leaving the poor to shift for themselves, or to depend on the casual hand of private charity: but here they have again overlooked one of the most important of the lessons which experience is daily giving to us, that the duty which in theory is incumbent on every body soon becomes in practice the duty of none.

It will tend to simplify our arguments, on this momentous point of political economy, if we clear our ground by inquiring, in the first place, whether mankind are under any obligation, moral or religious, to administer to the wants of such of their fellow-creatures as are not in a situation to provide for their own. That they are not so bound generally, and without limitation, but only on a due and deliberate discrimination of the objects of their charity, has been strenuously maintained by one of the authors before us; and, in support of his own views of the nature of benevolence, as applicable to the principles of the poor-laws, he has entered into the examination and *refutation* of the four following propositions, on the *affirmative* of which he conceives (we

shall not pause to examine how correctly) those principles entirely rest.

'I. Almsgiving is an absolute duty, without regard to the character of its objects.

'II. Every human being, unable to labour, has a right to sustenance.

'III. Every human being, able and willing to labour, has a right to receive employment, or the wages of labour.

'IV. and lastly. The virtue of charity is capable of being enforced by legislative authority.'

On examining the validity of his objections to these positions, it is not necessary for us to follow Mr. Bicheno through his elaborate investigation of the principle of benevolence, as exhibited under its different modifications of mercy, pity, compassion, commiseration, condolence, &c. Nor do we mean to dispute with him the truth of his proposition that the species of charitable relief, which has for its primary object the improvement of the mind or the correction of the vices of our fellow-creatures, ranks infinitely higher in the scale of utility and duty, than those which apply themselves solely or principally to the removal or mitigation of their bodily sufferings. We will even go farther, and freely concede to him that, in the distribution of our alms, it is our bounden duty to exercise the best discrimination which the emergency of the case will admit: — yet will the position for which he contends remain precisely as untenable as it was before. For the illustration of our argument, let us suppose the case of two objects, the one worthy and the other unworthy of encouragement, presenting their claims to our assistance at a time when we have the means of relieving only one of them. Here we are required to exercise that discrimination, which would unquestionably direct us to give the preference to the worthier object: this is a duty which every principle of reason and of common sense points out: but would any man seriously contend that, where we had the means of relieving the necessities of both these applicants, supposing those necessities to be alike urgent, we should be justified in giving a double share to the one, and in leaving the other to perish from want because he was less deserving of our bounty? Yet this line of conduct would be the practical result of the principles maintained in the pamphlet in question.

We will next suppose that the worthless object is alone soliciting our assistance, and is a profligate wretch who has again and again abused our bounty to pander to his own base appetites, and of whose amendment we have no longer

a hope: what would our duty be with respect to such an one? On the principle which we are deprecating, we ought to suffer him to sink into the grave, the victim of his own depravity: but, according to the milder precepts of that holy faith which commands us to love our enemies, and to do good even to those who despitefully use us, we should relieve his necessities, lest their severe pressure should plunge him still farther into guilt, and, through our neglect, he should perish in his sins. According, then, to our apprehension of the subject, the true nature and limit of discrimination in the distribution of our alms are these: — always to prefer those objects on whom the bounty which we may bestow is likely to produce the most salutary effects, with reference to their own real happiness and to the good of society at large; whenever we can do this without the risk of incurring a more serious evil by the rejection of those who, though less worthy, have more need of our assistance. As to the mode in which this relief is administered, we ought also to endeavour to adapt it to those higher objects of a benevolent concern for our fellow-creatures, which look beyond the mitigation of the sufferings of the body to the enlightening of their understandings, the correction of their vices, and their preparation for a better state of being. With regard, however, to these more expansive views of charity to man, it is often impossible to accomplish or even to attempt them, before the wants of the body are in some measure satisfied. It would be in vain to tell a man who, with his wife and family, was starving for want of food, that his greatest misery was his ignorance, and that until his mind was enlightened he never could be happy: but it behoves us to take every possible precaution lest the relief which, under such circumstances, we might afford to objects whom we know to be worthless, should be appropriated to any other purpose than that for which it was given, the saving them from starvation. All that they suffer short of this is the fruit of their own misconduct; and, while that remains unamended, it is no part of our duty to deprive it of bitterness: but even for the most abandoned of our race it is required of us that we do not suffer them to be cut off in their iniquities, while we have in our own hands the means of saving them. The acknowlegement of this obligation, in such extreme cases, is all that we require for the support of those principles on which the poor-laws really are founded. Still, to render this caution effectual, coercive measures must unfortunately be adopted, which the general interests of society will not allow any individual to take on his own authority; and hence arises the necessity of legislative interference, to restrain

restrain the idle and the dissolute from abusing that bounty which other members of the community, on principles of Christian benevolence and of sound policy, are required to contribute to his wants, and not to his deserts, — but which, from both of these motives, it is equally our duty to see properly applied.

As to the second object of inquiry, we think that the affirmative of the question cannot better be sustained than by a brief examination of the justice of two arguments, which the author has himself quoted and endeavoured to refute. The first of these is the right of extreme necessity; by which, says Paley, is meant "a right" (incidental to every man who is in a situation to claim it) "to use or destroy another's property, when it is necessary for our own preservation to do so; as a right to take, without or against the owner's leave, the first food, clothes, or shelter we meet with, when we are in danger of perishing through want of them." The second is founded on what this celebrated writer and others have termed the original compact of society; by which the appropriation of particular spots of ground and of their produce, to the sole use and benefit of particular individuals during their lives, and at their disposal after death, "was made and consented to, upon the expectation and condition, that every one should have left a sufficiency for his subsistence, or the means of procuring it." It is in vain to argue against the former of these propositions by asking 'who is to be the judge of this extreme necessity?' and, 'if the principle be dismissible in any instance, where is the line to be drawn to separate one man's property from another?' If it be not conceded that, when a fellow-creature has no longer the means of procuring for himself food to save him from starvation, or clothes to shield him from the inclemency of the season, and he cannot obtain them either by an appeal to the benevolence of others or by a tender of his labour to earn them for himself, the dormant right of nature rises again into action in all its force, to authorize him to take from his neighbour's superabundance that which is necessary to the relief of his own absolute wants; — if this be not conceded, it must follow that the right of property is paramount to the right to life; and that he who possesses the former cannot be required to part with the smallest portion of it, though (as in the case of buying up the provision of a country or district it might easily happen) the loss of life to hundreds of his fellow-creatures should be the consequence of his withholding it.

Mr. Bicheno admits, it is true, that some guilt is incurred by the inhumanity of such a conduct: but he contends that 'the accountability is not to him who claims our compassion, but to God alone, and we are very guilty if we harden our hearts against our fellow-men.' He forgets, however, a third party concerned in this matter, the community to which the offending individual belongs; and which is injured not only by the loss of one of its members, but by the tendency of the neglect of these social duties to endanger that mutual confidence and good will, without which society cannot exist and property never can be safe. It is, therefore, the duty of every government to make provision against the possibility of this extreme necessity ever having existence among its subjects; and that object has been effected with us by legislative enactments, which leave every man in this country without the plea of want which he otherwise might urge as an excuse for his crimes. The irresistible force of such an extremity of want, in breaking down every barrier which the imbecility of human laws might oppose to its relief, and the justice of its doing so, is no new idea suggested by Paley, or any other modern writer on moral philosophy, but is a doctrine most clearly maintained by Titius, Grotius, Puffendorf, Barbeyrac, Bishop Cumberland, Blackstone, and all the writers on the law of nature with whose works we are acquainted. Mr. Bicheno must therefore excuse us, if we are disposed to treat their united opinion with somewhat more deference than he feels.

On the second point, Mr. B. calls on Paley and those who entertain the same views of the subject, to shew that no absolute unalienable right exists; and also that such a compact as he has mentioned did originally take place. Surely, however, it is rather a departure from the usual mode of arguing for a disputant to call for the proof of a negative, to save himself the trouble and mortification of vainly attempting to maintain an affirmative proposition, attended with such insuperable difficulties as the establishment of this would experience. It would not, indeed, be a difficult task to prove that no man was ever born with a conveyance to the sole use of himself, and his heirs for ever, of any definite portion of the soil of this globe: but it is a mode of setting at rest the point in dispute which will much better accord with our limits, to require the opponents of this doctrine to shew that any human being ever had or could have a natural, inherent, and unalienable right to the enjoyment of every luxury which this earth could afford, while others of the same race, children too of the same common parent, inherit

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as their birthright nothing but poverty and distress; without having in their own power the means which nature gives to the most insignificant of her productions, for preserving their existence.

The right of property is either one which heaven itself confers on some chosen individuals; which man by force obtained, and holds but by sufferance of his fellow-man; or which was established by mutual compact, or something equivalent to it, when men first formed themselves into societies for their mutual benefit and protection. The first of these propositions can never, we think, be seriously maintained by any person, and, if the second should be preferred, our answer to it is short but conclusive. That which violence alone has gained, the hand of violence may take away: while the mere sufferance of others is but a precarious title, when the pressure of their own wants urges and even compels them, in their own defence, to withdraw it. Forced, however, to adopt this reasoning by the impossibility of otherwise accounting for the origin of the rights of property, most theoretical writers on this subject have referred them to that social compact which forms the last of the three hypotheses here offered to our choice. The only objection to this theory, that we recollect to have seen, is the impossibility of proving that such contract ever was formed; which is something like the chicanery of our courts, when, for the sake of weakening a good cause or of strengthening a bad one, notice is often given to the opposite party to produce an instrument which the party requiring its production well knows to have no existence. It is also, however, a rule in those courts that all that can be required, in proof of any point which may come in litigation there, is the best evidence which the nature of the case will admit; and, as it is impossible to prove by the production of the agreement, or otherwise, what were the precise terms of it, express or understood, in virtue of which men, more than five thousand years ago, acquired an absolute and exclusive dominion over things which at first must have been the common property of all, we can only supply the deficiency by appealing to the common sense of mankind to say what, in the very nature of things, they must have been. Let us suppose, then, for this purpose, that the right in question were now for the first time to be given; can a man be found so blind to his own interests as to consent that the earth itself and its produce should be divided in perpetuity among his fellow-men, while he and his children should be left without share or lot among them? Would any one thus voluntarily consent that he and his should become vagabonds and outcasts in

society, without the possibility of procuring for themselves the means of existence, except from the alms which should be doled out to them at the mere will of others; who, as they might have the charitable wish to give, would also have the right to withhold, and, consequently, without any crime or fault on their part, possess the power of dooming them to the most lingering death, whenever it might be their pleasure to do so? If this would not be done now, why is it gratuitously to be supposed that it ever was done; or what reason can be assigned for our not engrafting on that contract, — on the provisions of which, express or necessarily implied, all the relative duties, rights, and obligations of civil life can alone be satisfactorily explained and upholden, — a reservation to all men of the means of preserving life: without which, the other parts of the agreement, that bound them to hold sacred and inviolate the rights of property which for mutual convenience were established, must be wholly void, and have no force on their consciences or influence on their conduct?

In whatever way, therefore, we consider the question, — whether on the grounds of supreme necessity or on those of an original compact, — we cannot but arrive at the conclusion which Mr. Bicheno denies, but which best consists with the dictates of religion, reason, and a sound policy, that "every human being, unable to labour, has a right to sustenance." If he has not, it follows as a matter of course that we have a right, if we feel the disposition, to leave him to perish. "*Avant toutes les loix sociales,*" says Raynal, with equal truth and brevity, "*l'homme avoit le droit de subsister :*" — but to this remark it has, in substance, been answered by a writer on the principles of population, whose work has of late years deservedly attracted much of the public attention, that the Creator of mankind has not provided sufficient means of support for the beings whom he has created; and consequently that, unless a check be interposed to their increase, a period must arive when the right to live, with which they are supposed to be invested, will be at an end, because the world will not contain food enough to maintain them. We will not, however, so wilfully mistake the reasoning or misrepresent the character of the author of this theory, as to suppose that the view which he entertains of this subject can possibly justify us in adding to the checks which Providence itself has provided, by withholding a portion of our abundance for the supply of the wants of our fellow-creatures and the preservation of their lives; lest our children's children, in the hundredth generation, should fall on those evil days, at the worst but problematical in their arrival and slow indeed in their approach,

preach, when the earth, the air, and the seas shall fail in their increase to furnish food for their inhabitants, and the whole universe of God shall exhibit one gloomy feature of famine and desolation.

With this single remark we turn from a field of inquiry too wide for us to enter, in order to examine Mr. Bicheno's third proposition; in which he denies that 'every man able and willing to work has a right to receive employment, or the wages of labour.' — This point we shall dismiss very shortly. If we have succeeded in establishing the main and fundamental principle, that every man has a right to the means of support, it becomes a mere question of prudence and of policy whether they shall be furnished to him from the public purse, or by the hand of private charity, to maintain him in idleness; or whether they shall be paid as the remuneration for labour, allotted to him on the principle that no man can have a right to live at the expence of others, without working for his maintenance whenever he has the opportunity; and, if he be not prevented by illness or imbecility from availing himself of it, such opportunity is all that he can require to be given to him. On the superiority of the former over the latter mode of administering relief to the indigent, it is surely needless to employ a single word; for it is obvious that the interests of every community demand that nothing but the impossibility of finding work for them, or their inability to perform it, should excuse any of its members for leading at the public cost an useless and inactive life. That we are yet arrived at this alternative in England, we can by no means persuade ourselves; since, though our manufacturers have of late years felt a depression from the want of a market for their produce, we are not satisfied that any thing like a proper exertion has been made to find modes of employing our poor, which might perfectly consist with a proper scope for mercantile competition, and steer equally clear of the danger of reducing the price of labour below its proper level, by overstocking the market beyond its demand. At least, until all the waste lands in the kingdom have been cultivated, our fisheries carried to their utmost extent, and all the other plans which benevolence has suggested for the employment of the lower orders of society have been tried and exhausted, there can be little foundation for the present author's feeling lamentations over the effect of our poor-laws, and his animated vituperation of this principle for 'attempting the unnatural system of creating employment' for those who can find none for themselves. True it is that he gives Scripture for his rule, and tells us that 'Revelation sanctions the law' for which he contends, by the incontrovertible pre-

cept, "If a man will not work, neither shall he eat." Does he forget, however, that the same Revelation informs us that "the poor we have always with us," for they shall never cease out of our land, yet that it is not and cannot be "the will of our heavenly Father that one of *them* should perish?"

We are now arrived at Mr. Bicheno's fourth and last point, which we cannot but consider as equally objectionable with his others; not so much, indeed, because he does not succeed better in maintaining the position for which he contends, as because, supposing him even to have established it victoriously, his labour would be lost, since he is mistaken in supposing that the making men charitable is or ever was the object of our present system of poor-laws. Nothing in fact is easier, in a controversy of this kind, than to conjure up a man of straw, and knock him down, triumphantly shouting, "I have killed a giant." This we conceive Mr. B. to have done; for, whatever may have been the object of those statutes for the relief of the poor, which provided that people who refused to contribute towards it should be gently exhorted by the churchwardens and priests, and that, if these admonitions failed, the bishop was to take them in hand, and by charitable ways and means induce and persuade them, Mr. Bicheno must have read to little purpose the long list of acts of parliament which he has enumerated, if he has not perceived that the chief end of such as have been passed since those days has been to remedy the evils which resulted from allowing vagrancy to be legalized, and from the collections for the poor being regulated by the charitable dispositions which men might feel to relieve their wants, rather than by their ability to contribute to their support. The poor's rate is therefore to be considered as a mere tax on property, equally with any other levy for the uses of the state; and he who pays the proportion of it to which he is assessed has, by so doing, no more performed a deed of charity, than he who, when ballotted for the militia, pays a large sum for a substitute rather than serve in his own person, is to be extolled as a patriot. In both cases, the parties have but contributed that portion of their substance which the laws have declared it to be equitable that they should pay; in the one instance to protect her against her enemies, and in the other to bear a part of the burthen which the constitution of society throws on the richer to maintain its poorer members. A compliance with these enactments neither releases us on the one hand from the obligation to use our utmost endeavours to counteract the designs of the enemy; nor excuses us, on the other, in the sight of God or man, for not administering, according to our

several abilities, to the wants and necessities of such of our fellow-creatures as may appear the most deserving of assistance beyond the bare support which the law provides for them.

Such, then, are the principles on which we conceive that the duty and policy of making some legislative provision for the poor are to be supported; and it is on them that the wisdom of our ancestors seems to have acted, when, after a long and painful experience of the inefficiency of less compulsory measures, they framed the statute of the 43d of Elizabeth, c. 2.; which, as it is correctly observed by the author of one of the works before us, 'is pretty generally considered as the origin of a compulsory provision for the poor: *though* it did but little more than consolidate and give a more precise form to provisions previously existing.' (*Considerations on the Poor Laws*, p. 18.)

We must reserve the conclusion of this subject for another article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XI. *The Æneis of Virgil;* translated by Charles Symmons, D. D.

[*Article continued from p.* 354.]

"To be good and disagreeable," said an admirable female writer, "is high treason against virtue." May we not apply the *spirit* of this remark to the learned translator of Virgil who is now before us; and remind him that to be "classical and pedantic" is an unpardonable sin against good taste? So ready are the advocates for licentiousness, of every description, to cry out against the salutary and sensible restraints which abridge their extravagance, that it becomes as positive a duty as any other, to give them no shadow of pretence for escaping from their obligations. If, then, it is incumbent on every good man to present to his associates as engaging and amiable an appearance of virtue as he possibly can manifest, it is in a less degree but still indisputably binding on him, as a scholar and a man of taste, not to suffer the Gothic liberties of his contemporaries to find an excuse in his own cramped phraseology, for flying into the contrary extreme of careless looseness of speech. How, indeed, shall the learned *successfully* reprove the ignorant, or how shall *any* barrier be opposed to the intolerable inaccuracy of the day in every branch of literature, if the few classical writers among us do not take care to be inviting as well as correct?

With

With these introductory remarks, we shall pursue our pleasant and unpleasant task of praising and criticizing the Æneid of Dr. Symmons: — pleasant, inasmuch as in the larger portion of it, we have the delight of listening to a musical, a feeling, and an elegant strain of poetry; — unpleasant, as we are absolutely compelled by duty, by claims which the Doctor should of all writers be the least willing to oppose, — by the love of Virgil, — to censure various parts also of this interesting publication.

The fourth book of Dr. Symmons's version was published six years ago, as a specimen of his *then* intended translation, in a volume of poems which we reviewed in our lxxiid vol. p. 182.; and, as we entered into a full examination of it on that occasion, we need not now repeat that part of our task, but may proceed to Book V.: remarking only, in general, that the author appears to have revised and frequently altered his former lines, in some instances according to the suggestions which we offered.

We have already adverted to the extraordinary mixture of formality and freedom which marks this translation.

> 'The pilot Palinurus *with surprise*
> Exclaim'd' ——— Book V.

is oddly contrasted with such a line as the following, in the same book:

> 'By men, and by *hurl'd rivers unsupprest.*'

In these lines, the conversational familiarity of the expression, '*with surprise,*' is too abrupt and bald for epic poetry; while the 'hurl'd rivers' of the second verse have a bombastic *impetus* that is any thing but Virgilian. The expressions in the original are subjoined:

> "*Ipse gubernator puppi Palinurus ab altâ* —"
>
> — — — — — —
>
> "*Nec vires heroum, infusaque flumina prosunt.*"

'Hurl'd' is an unhappy expression. The original is quite strong enough; — and to heighten the strength of Virgil is still more unnaturally erroneous in taste, than that amplification which Rowe added to the diffuse energy of Lucan.

Having endeavoured to give a general idea of the two *extremes* in Dr. Symmons's style, — of the "excessively familiar" and the "extravagantly strong," — we shall now proceed to a regular notice of some of the faults which we fancy that we have discovered in the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th books of his translation; and, as before, we shall add,

add, with unfeigned pleasure, such passages as appear to us worthy of their divine original. Certainly, however, the last couplet in the fifth book is not one of these successful efforts:

'Thou, Palinurus! *thrown on rocks*, and BARE,
Art doom'd to welter in the parching air.'

"*Nudus in ignotâ, Palinure! jacebis arenâ.*"

Nor can we approve of the *corporeal* image in the subjoined distich; fortunate as sometimes are such illustrations of the sufferings of the mind:

'Thus the wise dictates of his mind exprest,
To calm the *tossings* of the chieftain's *breast*.'

'Then shall the noble contest *ascertain*,' &c. &c.

We should be sorry to be hypercritical: but we cannot think that the word '*ascertain*' has a poetical cast and character. Whatever Dr. Symmons may be disposed to urge against our creed on this subject, we appeal to the public whether there be not a language belonging to poetry, distinct from that which is adapted to eloquence?—whether, in a word, nature has not laid the foundation of those rules which are to be studied, in all their force and all their distinctness, in Aristotle's Rhetoric and Poetic? We shall have too frequent occasion to advert to this fundamental difference of style, as we proceed.

Let us, however, here leave the supposed blemishes of the fifth book; and, after a quotation or two from its beauties, advance to that *chef-d'œuvre* of Virgil, the sixth book of his Æneid.

The description of the serpent, appearing at the tomb of Anchises, shall be our first selection:

L. 115. 'He ceased; when from the mound a serpent glides,
That on seven radiant volumes proudly rides:
Then softly round the tomb, and round the shrine,
Slow fluctuates with insinuating twine.
His back was *dropt* with azure; o'er his scales,
A floating glow of flamy gold prevails,
Like the bright bow that, striding o'er the skies,
Throws from the sun opposed a thousand dyes.
Amazed Æneas sees: amid the bowls
With wavy train the beauteous wonder rolls.
From them he sips, and from the chargers eats;
And having tasted all the hallow'd meats,
Harmless to his sepulchral home retreats.'

The starting of the vessels in the naval race is executed with great spirit; and so is the pleasing scene of the sham-fight

fight between the youths of Troy: but we prefer the noble picture of Neptune smoothing the seas as he passes over them, and of the progeny of Ocean sporting around him.

L. 1031. 'When thus the sire had chased the suppliant's fear,
He yoked his coursers for their proud career:
High o'er their tossing heads the monarch stands,
Shakes the loose reins, and all their rage commands.
Swift o'er the glassy plain the chariot sweeps;
Beneath his axle blue-haired Ocean sleeps.
Unstained with clouds the fields of Ether glow;
And all is bright above, and calm below.
Around the sovereign, in unwieldy sport,
Gambol huge whales, the vassals of his court.
Palemon near and hoary Glaucus wait;
Phorcus and Triton swell the floating state.
Bright on the left Cymodoce is seen;
Thetis and Melite of softest mien:
Nisæe, Spio, gay Thalia's grace;
And virgin Panopea's blooming face.
As laughs the encircling scene, the hero's heart
Feels the mild pleasures which its smiles impart.
With haste, he bids each lofty mast ascend;
And every hand the extended sail-yards bend.
At once they stretch the booms, and spread the sails;
And turn their swelling bosoms to the gales.
Borne by the auspicious breeze the fleet proceeds;
While their close order Palinurus leads.'

We now enter on that glorious production of classical genius, learning, patriotism, and good taste, the sixth book.

L. 109. '"For thee, great virgin of the illumined mind!
A holy sanctuary my hands shall find:
There place thine oracles, and priests ordain
To guard the treasures of thy mystic strain.
But thou, indulgent to thy suppliant's prayer,
Trust not to flitting leaves, the sport of air,
The god's responses, but thyself relate;
And with thy lips unseal the page of Fate."
'He ceased, but deep within her cell retired,
Still raved the maid, extatic and inspired.
Impatient, still she struggled from her breast
To heave the oppression of it's mighty guest:
But with more power the god his seat maintains;
Tames her wild heart, and o'er her fury reigns.
Spontaneous then unfold the hundred doors,
And rushing into air, his answer pours.'

The answer of the Sybil to Æneas is very majestic: but we cannot make room for it.

We omit also the beginning of the story of the Golden Bough; though we could have wished to throw the preceding passages,

passages together, because they relate to the general conception of the character of the Sybil; and because they prove the translator to have entered, with a poet's feeling, into the wildness and the solemnity of that sublime idea of a prophetess. The expression 'mighty feat,' in the last of these passages, we cannot include in our praise. The incident of the Doves, in the pursuit of the golden bough, is most beautiful, and Dr. Symmons has done justice to this elegant passage; a passage which, among many others, (and one, particularly, which we shall quote in the seventh book,) proves the exquisite tenderness of Virgil, — the genuine sympathy which he maintained with all the living tribes of nature:

L. 269. 'Scarce had he said, when softly wafted by,
Two doves with plumes unruffled cut the sky,
And light upon the green: with joy he views
His mother's birds, and thus his prayer renews:
'"O! be your wing my guide, and through the air
Disclose the way (if any way be there)
Through yon dark woods, and point the golden bough,
As its rich shadow floats and gleams below.
And thou, my Goddess-mother! now confess
Thy wonted power, and aid thy son's distress."
'He spoke; and heedful of their actions stood
To mark the plumy guidance through the wood.
They just before him fed: and then their flight
Renewed, yet not outflew his following sight.
But when they came to where Avernus' breath
Infects the invenom'd atmosphere with death,
At once into superior air they spring
And o'er the sacred foliage close the wing,
Where the bright gold with undulating rays
Shoots through the involving green a yellow blaze.'

Where shall we find a lighter or more engaging sketch of fancy than this? A picture drawn exactly from it would be certain of exciting our interest.

In the couplet below, we have another instance of the exaggerating spirit which soars *beyond* its original and yet *not so high!* Speaking of Avernus, the translator says;

'From its rank jaws such blasting vapours roll,
Load the dun air, *and poison to the Pole.*'

'Poison to the Pole!'

—— "from Indus to the Pole."

—— "*tales sese halitus atris*
Faucibus effundens supera ad convexa ferebat."

'She said; and furious *dash'd* into the cave:
Her step he follows with a step *as brave.*'

"*Tantum*

" *Tantum effata, furens antro se immisit aperto:*
Ille ducem haud timidis *vadentem passibus æquat.*"

It was not in *bravery* but in *rapidity* that Æneas equalled the Sybil, as they entered on their subterraneous journey. The idea of the Sybil being *brave* only requires to be distinctly mentioned to shew the impropriety of such an expression: but, when the venerable lady is made *dashing* as well as *brave*, then, surely, we have " something *too much of this!*"

The address to the Shades, and the representation of the figures at the threshold of Hell, are excellently rendered:

L. 364. ' Ye Gods, who rule the Shades with awful might,
Chaos, and Phlegethon, and silent Night!
Grant me unblamed to speak what Fame has told;
And your deep world of darkness to unfold.
' O'er shadowy realms controll'd by Pluto's sway,
Through the dun gloom they press their lonely way,
Like him who traverses the forest-shade,
By the false moon not lighted, but betray'd:
When Jove in clouds withdraws the heavens from view;
And Night robes Nature in one sable hue.
' On Hell's black threshold, by its yawning gate,
Sorrows and vengeful Cares reclining wait.
There wan diseases dwell, and mournful age:
There, Fear, and Want, and ghastly Famine rage;
Forms dire to sight! and there, of kindred race,
Pale Death and Sleep, with Labour, hold their place;
There too the joys of mind that spring from guilt;
And War, all horrid in the blood he spilt.
There stand the Furies' iron beds, and there
Discord with gory bands restrains her snaky hair.'

The lines which follow, shortly after the above, are in a different style:

' Here, seised with sudden *fright*, the hero's hand
Shook his broad blade the monsters to withstand;
And, had his sage conductor not *advised*
That the vain forms unbodied lives *comprised*,' &c. &c.

Our readers will instantly discover the impropriety, that is, the prosaic nature of the foregoing phrases; while the word '*fright*,' used in serious poetry, is entirely of plebeian character, and cannot but dishonour the place which it occupies.

" *Jam senior, sed cruda Deo viridisque senectus.*"

' Old, but without decay, the God is seen
In wintry age that *shoots with vernal green.*'

The expression of " a green old age" is naturalized in our language: but we cannot go beyond this established metaphor, and talk of ' wintry age *shooting* with vernal green.'

'When boisterous Autumn *shatters* first their shades.'

This bold phrase '*shatters*' is not only, as we think, inadmissibly audacious, but it destroys the quiet and melancholy cast of the simile in the original:

"*Quam multa in sylvis Autumni frigore primo*
Lapsa cadunt folia."—

On the same ground, we object to the epithet '*boisterous.*' If we chose to pursue so minute a strain of criticism, we certainly might multiply our objections to a very considerable extent: but we shall be contented with noticing some of the translator's most decided *nods*, ("*summa* papaverum *capita decussisse*,") and proceed to more general observations.

'Not far removed, in wide *diffusion* thrown,
Lie the pale fields, *as those of sorrow known.*'

"*Nec procul hinc fusi partem monstrantur in omnem,*
Lugentes campi; sic illos nomine dicunt."

The simple picture in the Latin is (to us, at least,) rendered indistinct by the *unpicturesque* word '*diffusion;*' and the conclusion of the couplet, '*as those of sorrow known,*' is aukward enough to destroy the effect, pathetic as it is calculated to be, of the '*lugentes campi*' of Virgil.

The interview between Dido and Æneas is, on the whole, sufficiently well rendered: but a line or two in it we could wish to alter.

"*Egregia interea conjux,*" &c. &c.

'The *egregious* wife meanwhile deceived her lord.'

This English epithet (which we have little doubt is a favourite with the translator) sounds to our ears with a sarcastic effect indeed, but still it is a comic sarcasm:—at all events, it seems more suited to the version of a satirical than of an epic poet; and, if Dr. S. intends to justify it by Virgil's own epithet in this place, or by his "*egregiam verò laudem,*" &c. in another, we think that the examples will not support him. It would lead us too far, on a point of such comparative insignificance, to adduce our reasons for this opinion; and we leave it, with many similar matters, before those who are to decide between Dr. S. and ourselves.

'Wrings the black secret from the *grasping* breast.'

—— "*subigitque fateri.*"

None can doubt, we suppose, that here is too much amplification.

'In trembling *imminence*, a sable rock,
Now, now, to fall, *o'er these intends the shock.*'

'*Imminence*'

'*Imminence*' we cannot suffer to pass uncensured.—We now select the description of the Elysian fields:

Line 843. 'The gift thus made, and finished every rite
Enjoined by her who ruled the nether night,
They reach'd at length the realms of blissful rest;
The bloomy groves and gardens of the blest.
Here purest ether sweets immortal feeds,
And throws impurpling radiance o'er the meads.
Suns of their own these souls of light behold,
And stars, more brilliant with celestial gold.
Some on the sands, or green inwrought with flowers,
In games *palestric* pass the gladsome hours:
Some chaunt melodious lays, and with light feet
In the gay dance the measured cadence beat:
Whilst, in a flowing robe, the bard of Thrace
Rolls his tuned voice through music's seven-fold space;
And, waking with his touch, or quill, the lyre,
Bids the rich soul of harmony aspire.
Here Ilion's peaceful race of ancient birth,
In happier days the pride and grace of earth,
Ilus, Assaracus, reside in joy:
And the great founder of the walls of Troy.
Their vacant cars and arms, at distance laid,
Æneas with admiring eyes survey'd.
Their spears stand fix'd in earth, and on the plain
Their coursers feed, unconscious of the rein.
Their joys not transient as the fleeting breath,
What pleased in life now pleases after death:
Fond of their steeds and chariots as above,
The hero's passion in the shades they prove.'

In this entire quotation our readers will discover great beauty, and indeed much variety of poetical merit in the translation. It may have some partial defects, but we shall not stay to notice them. We must remember, in truth, that this article will not even include the books which we have proposed, if we dwell so long on the sixth. We had intended to have comprized the whole work in two reviews: but we find that the great number of our remarks, including those which relate to the preface and notes, will render this impossible; and we must present the author with a *Cerberus-headed* critique on his translation; although, we hope, not written in a *cynical* or *barking* spirit of criticism.

The explanation given by Anchises, in answer to the question of his son concerning the crowd of souls impatient to be born again, is very impressively translated: but we must hasten to the famous passage at the conclusion of the prophetic survey of the fates and fortunes of the Romans; and then

then with equal speed we must enter on the seventh stage of our extended task.

Line 1162. ' " Son!" cried the weeping sire, " the wish forego,
To learn what late must whelm thy house in woe.
He shall by fate be only shown to earth:
A short bright flash between decease and birth.
Too high, ye Gods! our Roman power had grown,
Had this your precious gift been all our own.
How shall the field of Mars lament his doom!
Its plain reflecting the vast groan of Rome!
What pomps of woe shall sadden Tiber's wave,
As his deep murmurs fan the recent grave!
No youth of Troy, thus rich in early praise,
So high the hope of Italy shall raise:
Nor shall our Rome, 'mid all her hero-host,
A son so bright in dawning glory boast.
O piety! O faith of ancient strain!
O hand, unconquer'd on the martial plain!
On foot, or spurring his impetuous steed,
The foe that met him had been sure to bleed.
Ah! could'st thou, hapless boy! through fate's decree
Break into age, thou should'st Marcellus be!
Hither with loaded hands fresh lilies bring:
Here let me strew Elysiums' roseate spring.
Vain though my offerings, let them yet be paid;
And honoured thus my great descendants' shade."'

The only observation with which we shall diminish our general praise of this passage is the following: ' Tiber's deep murmurs *fanning* the recent grave' is a phrase too strong to be pleasing; if, indeed, it can be properly called intelligible.

The seventh is justly intitled ' a busy book' by Dr. Symmons. The story, which has hitherto rather lingered, although to make room for divine digressions, now rapily proceeds, and gathers increasing interest as it goes on. Old Latinus, whose mild and dignified manners are the free and happy copy of that delightful model of age, the Priam of Homer; the violent but deeply feeling Amata; the young, the ardent, the pitiably outraged Turnus; fresh and striking intrigues of Juno; and the patriotic rising of the Latins; all lend variety and vigour to this animating book.

We shall begin by a few citations (for we cannot afford more) of such parts as we think are uninterrupted, or the least interrupted, by defects in diction; and first for the description of Alecto inspiring Amata with anger and revenge. As we might expect on such occasions, some lines, or, more properly speaking, phrases in this passage err by superfluity of strength: but *euge, euge!* on the whole.

L. 446. ‘ Alecto straight with Gorgon poisons fraught,
The lofty palace of Laurentum sought;
And there the threshold of Amata prest:
Who, with the woman heaving in her breast,
Felt fear and rage by turns, as she survey'd
Troy welcomed, and her Turnus' hopes delay'd.
At her, a snake the Stygian goddess threw,
Torn from the hissing forehead where it grew;
And deeply plunged it in her panting heart:
That thus inflicted with the invenom'd smart,
The furious queen might all her powers *arouse;*
And hurl disorder o'er the regal *house.*
Through her unruffled nest the monster slides:
O'er her unconscious bosom smoothly glides:
Eludes the touch; but, breathing subtle air,
Blends with the soul, and genders serpents there.
Now round her neck, as wreathing gold, it shines:
Now, as a band, her floating locks entwines:
Now seizing all her person, o'er her limbs
In undulating volumes softly swims.
Ere yet, with growing force, the fiery pest
Burnt in her bones, and flamed through all her breast;
With tears as mothers wont, she thus deplored
Her child's affiance to the Phrygian lord.’

‘ Burnt in her bones!’ “ *ossibus implicat ignem.*” The original should have been *softened*, if altered in this line: but to aggravate its boldness by such a phrase as ‘ *burnt in her bones*’ was assuredly a mistake. We must also object to ‘ as mothers *wont.*’

The next and indeed the only passage that we can find room to quote in this book is the beautiful description of Sylvia's wounded deer, to which we referred above:

L. 623. ‘ A stag of beauteous form and branchy head,
Young from its dam, the sons of Tyrrheus bred.
(Tyrrheus, whom trusted to his guardian sway,
The royal pastures and their herds obey.)
This stag, accustom'd to her plausive hands,
Their sister, Silvia, dress'd with flowery bands:
Comb'd his soft bosom, and would fondly lave
Her glossy favourite in the limpid wave.
He, conscious of the hand that thus caress'd,
And at his master's board a wonted guest,
O'er his own native woods would freely roam,
And then, even late at night, re-seek his home.
Him, far excursive from his guardian's care,
Iülus' eager dogs now snuff'd in air;
And found, as haply in the crystal tides
He wanton'd, and allay'd his sultry sides.
Ascanius, with the love of praise elate,
Strain'd his curved bow, and sped the shaft of Fate.

The

The officious Fury, present at the deed,
Gave the dart aim, and wing'd with deathful speed.
Singing it reach'd the mark, and driven with force,
Through the deer's ribs and bowels held its course.
The wounded quadruped in anguish fled;
And, groaning, shelter'd in his wonted shed:
There bleeding lay, and with complaining cries,
Fill'd all the house, that murmur'd with his sighs.
Silvia first saw him, and with wringing hands,
Call'd out the rustic tenants of the lands.'

More reluctantly than ever, we are now led back to our business of criticizing particular expressions.

We cannot bring ourselves to like the terms 'mutually dependent,' in the subjoined lines:

—— 'A host of bees
Circled the plant; and from a leafy arm
Hung, *mutually dependent*, in a swarm.'

The words are descriptive, we confess: but is it fancy, or are they really unpoetical?

The prophet, 'stretched on fleeces of new-slaughtered sheep,' reminds us again * of one of our contemporary poets; and Walter Scott, in the "Prophecy" in the Lady of the Lake, has certainly, even in the rude scene of his description, trespassed on the classical manor of Virgil.

'O'er all the region *speed inquiry's way.*'

This, in another writer, we should call a *botch*, a positive *botch:* but in Dr. S., who is much too fertile in resources for such an accusation, we can only term it a quaint *concetto.*

The epithet '*succinct*' (to express the short and closely girded tunic) occurs more frequently than we approve.

'Where *culminating* Suns roll fiercely round.'

We are not scientific enough to admire this participle.

'Her *god-wide* vision o'er the land she throws.'

It is sufficient, we conceive, to copy this combination of '*god-wide.*'

'Their shields and spears some cleanse with oil's smooth stream.'

The author, of course, *intended* this line of rough monosyllables †: but why he *intended* it is to us perfectly inexplicable. Unless some undiscovered object is to be gained by such a portentous concourse of little *s's*, we must condemn it *totis viribus.*

* See the former portion of this article, in our last Review.

† How different from those musical although monosyllabic lines which the Doctor has quoted in his preface!

'*Takes* down the casque, and *shakes* its mouldering crest.'

Here we have to complain of something too weak, instead of too strong; although we suppose that Dr. S. will exclaim with the Serjeant, "There's *no* pleasing you! flog high, or flog low, it's all alike!" but, without here contesting the point as to phraseology, we must observe that, as to harmony, the translator does not seem sufficiently aware how much it suffers by the close recurrence of similar *notes*. Vowels may be called the *notes* of poetry; and if *takes* and *shakes* are to come together in one line, not only is a rhyme wasted but a single verse is entirely spoiled. Seriously, the Doctor much too often closes his lines with similar terminations, although not the same: with terminations in which the same vowels give the tone, although different consonants are the adjuncts. We have (we believe) more than once before admonished poets of the day that it is a bad practice to rhyme many lines following with such words as are here described. For instance; to fill half a page with such successive endings as 'face,' 'race,'—'fane,' 'train,'—'blade,' 'shade,' 'shake,' 'take,'—is a manifest proof of a defective ear, and of an incomplete theory of poetical music. If we intersperse a few such rhymes as 'oar,' 'shore,'—'line,' 'shine,'—'cure,' 'immure,'—'ease,' 'please,'—among these successions of the same vowels, among these monotones of *a*, *a*, *a*, it will give them a harmony to which they were perfect strangers before.

Dr. S. runs wanton in his double "chain-shot" epithets, as he proceeds. We have 'peace-lull'd,' 'famine-wrung,' 'flame-engendering,' and many others, more or less objectionable: but we shall here leave his "merits and frailties," as far as they are observable in the seventh book; and, omitting even Turnus in the catalogue of the forces, we shall, *en passant*, visit the good Evander, and briefly gaze on the celestial armour of Æneas, in the eighth.

The sailing of the Trojan vessels up the Tiber is beautifully narrated by the translator: but we perceive with regret that neither this nor any of the beauties of the eighth book can be more than mentioned in our present examination. Much of the description of the shield is exquisitely rendered; and even the mere English reader will not rise from this translation without an interest in the fate of Evander and his son. To these brief references we must confine ourselves; and, after a few notices of the still pervading faults of the work, we must again, for a while, say farewell to Dr. Symmons and his classical translation.

"*Dum nova crescendo reparabit cornua Phœbe.*"

'*To*

'*To announce* that Troy had grasp'd Ausonia's coast.'
Book VIII.

What objection has the Doctor to the simple verb '*To tell*?' —'Æneas had *arrived*.' If '*to announce*' was supposed to be more dignified than 'to tell,' why was the *arrival* of Æneas so familiarly *announced* in the next line but one? These variations are inconsistent with any theory as to the majesty or the meanness of language; for they carry us from the highest to the lowest forms of speech with a rapidity to be equalled only by the ascent and descent of Bonaparte, or the *culmination* and declension of a comet.

'And, as their minds *upon his converse pore*,
Beguiles their progress *with instructive lore*.'

This couplet sounds to us like prose measured into rhyme. It has nothing of the simplicity, nothing of the peculiar character, of poetry. Even in the plainest narrative, this character may be preserved, and *is* preserved by our best authors. Dryden, in his Fables, although often coarse and often absurd, is rarely if ever prosaic *in language*. His thoughts may be unfit for poetry, and often are: but his words are almost uniformly light, airy, and adapted to the purposes of verse. It is the charm of their combination that makes them thus engaging; for his sentences, in their constituent parts, frequently consist of the most familiar and ordinary terms. One great secret which he possessed was the art of giving an effect, impressive and poetical, to the plainest *English*; an effect which no classical terms whatever can attain: for to find our own common talk capable of performing such wonders must give us an infinitely greater delight, than to see any expressiveness, power, eloquence, or harmony, arising from the acknowleged superiority of the learned languages, transfused into our Gothic tongues.

We hope to resume and to conclude this critique in our next number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XII. *A Treatise on the Valuation of Annuities and Assurances on Lives and Survivorships; on the Construction of Tables of Mortality; and on the Probabilities and Expectations of Life, &c.* By Joshua Milne, Actuary to the Sun Life Assurance Office. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co.

No class of institutions, or companies, is calculated to offer to us a better criterion for judging of the refined morality of a country, than those which are allotted to life-assurances: since

since they shew us a large portion of people looking seriously forwards to that awful event which must at some time happen to all, and endeavouring as far as they can to guard those who are now depending on them for support from the consequences of such a visitation. Many wives and helpless children, but for the facilities offered by these institutions, might and in all probability would, from holding a respectable rank in society, be plunged into the depth of wretchedness and want, by the premature death of an affectionate husband and tender parent. In no country in the world have such institutions acquired that high degree of respectability, which they have attained in this; no other government is calculated to inspire so much confidence for the deposit of money for such purposes; and to no people are these institutions so important as to the English; the middle class of society bearing a much larger proportion to the whole population in this empire, than in any other.

Such being the value and interest of assurance-companies, it is highly desirable that the principles on which they are founded should be well understood; and we are therefore always disposed to view in a favorable light any work that is intended to convey such information. We may not uniformly approve the arrangement or the execution, but we shall never fail to applaud the motive. In the work before us, for example, we find much room for objection on the former of these heads, and particularly respecting the notation; which we consider as not only Gothic in its appearance, but extremely inconvenient in its application. Of all the alphabets known in the present day, we can recollect none, except the *Hebrew* and the *Chinese*, so improper for algebraical purposes as the old English, which seems to be a great favorite with Mr. Milne. We have also the common Roman letters under all the variety of forms that can possibly suggest themselves to the printers of lottery-hand-bills; in one place in plain black lines, and in others with open lines; and with dashes, indices, and parentheses, out of number. This peculiarity we cannot but consider as deducting seriously from the merits of the performance; which in other respects certainly contains much useful and important information.

The first volume is opened with an introduction, giving an historical view of most of the early attempts at establishing this branch of analytical calculation on correct mathematical principles: but we were much surprized to find so little notice of recent authors; and particularly that the most scientific work which has yet appeared on this subject, Barly *On the Doctrine of Life Annuities and Assurances*, is not even mentioned.

mentioned. We regret this omission for two reasons; in the first place, because it leaves incomplete the information which the author seems desirous to convey; and, secondly, because we think that, had he examined that book with attention, it might have furnished him with some useful hints relative to the arrangement of his materials. The other chapters in this volume relate to compound interest and annuities certain; the probabilities and expectations of human life, death, and survivorships; the construction of tables of mortality; annuities on lives; assurances on lives; assurances on survivorships and on successive lives: then follow extensions of the preceding theories, valuation of policies of assurances, &c.; an illustration of the preceding theories by numerical examples, and office-calculations.

Chapter i. of Vol. II. treats on the progress of population; and here the author appears to have taken great pains to acquire information from various sources, independently of what is furnished by preceding writers. The chapter certainly contains a great portion of novel and original data: as much with reference to this particular branch of the *statistics* of England, Scotland, and Wales, as to the particular doctrine of life-annuities and assurances. The first subject discussed is one which has been assumed as a sort of axiom by a celebrated writer; viz. that the population of a country has a tendency to increase in a geometrical progression; with a comparison of the increase of births and deaths with the price of wheat in different years. As we consider this subject to be both curious and important, it may be useful to lay some of the author's facts and inferences before the reader, premising that they are drawn from authentic documents. The numbers of marriages, baptisms, and burials, are taken from the abstract of answers and returns to the population-act, passed in 1811; the number of conceptions in each year is assumed to be the same as the number of baptisms in the year following; and the prices of wheat are those which were given in the appendix to the Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the high price of Bullion, printed by order of the House of Commons in 1810.

We cannot give the table formed from these documents, but the following observations drawn from it will not, we presume, be uninteresting:

'It will be observed, that any material reduction in the price of wheat is almost always accompanied by an increase both of the marriages and conceptions, and by a decrease in the number of burials; consequently, by an increase in the excess of the births above the deaths.

'Also, that any material rise in the price is generally attended by a corresponding decrease in the marriages and conceptions, and by an increase in the burials; therefore, by a decrease in the excess of the births above the deaths.

'Thus it appears, that an increase in the quantity of food, or in the facility wherewith the labouring classes can obtain it, accelerates the progress of the population, both by augmenting the actual fecundity*, and diminishing the rate of mortality; and that a scarcity of food retards the increase of the people, by producing in both ways opposite effects.

'This table also shows, that an increase of food increases the actual fecundity, not only by promoting new marriages, but by rendering those already contracted more prolific. Thus,

There were in the year	Marriages.	Conceptions.	When the price of the quarter of wheat was
1790	70,648	255,508	£2 13 2
1792	74,919	264,028	£2 2 11
Differences	4,271	8,520	£0 10 3

'Whereby it appears, that a fall of 10s. 3d. in the price of the quarter of wheat, was attended by an increase of 4,271 in the number of the annual marriages, while the annual conceptions were augmented by nearly twice that number. Again,

There were in the year	Marriages.	Conceptions.	When the price of the quarter of wheat was
1795	68,839	256,781	£3 14 2
1797	74,997	270,535	£2 13 1
Differences	6,158	13,754	£1 1 1

'Where the increase of the conceptions, accompanying the fall of wheat, was more than double that of the marriages.

'But the mass of the population seems not to have recovered so quickly from the effects of the great dearth of 1800 and 1801; for although wheat was 5os. a quarter lower in 1802 than in 1801, and this fall was accompanied by an increase of 23,000 in the annual marriages, the conceptions only rose 21,000; and a further fall of 11s. in the price the year following, was attended by an augmentation of 4000 in the marriages, and only 400 in the conceptions; after this, however, these last resumed their usual course.

'* By the *actual fecundity*, that part only of the absolute physical power of propagation is here to be understood, which the actual circumstances allow of being developed.'

'The

'The relations between the *decrements* in the annual marriages and conceptions that accompany the *rise* of wheat, are generally similar to these; but, in the conceptions, not quite so regular; perhaps for this reason, that rising prices may deter from marriage, without the scarcity being so great, as to render those already married less prolific.'

After this long quotation, we must be concise in enumerating the remaining contents of this volume; the most important of which are, — on the Carlisle Table of Mortality; the Reduction of Mortality by Vaccination; the Population and Mortality in England and Wales, and the Mortality in marshy Situations; on the comparative Mortality occasioned by different Diseases, by different Seasons, and in the two Sexes; on the Law of Mortality in Sweden and Finland; at Montpellier, and in the whole kingdom of France; &c. &c. These are followed by a variety of tables necessary for the computation of the several cases that may present themselves, with notes and illustrations; and an appendix, containing the investigation of particular formulæ, closes the volume.

Having thus endeavoured to give a sketch of the subjects contained in the work, we beg to make a few remarks relative to some essential matters that appear to be omitted.

Besides the business carried on by the different assurance-companies, we have in this country a number of local societies for the benefit of old age and widows, the members of which undertake to manage their own concerns, and therefore stand much in need of correct information. Dr. Price did not deem those associations undeserving of his serious attention: we find also a chapter devoted to this subject in Baily's work above mentioned; and we conceive that they ought to form a part of every treatise on the doctrine of assurances; since without repeated warnings from men of science, who are alone capable of judging of the correctness of the principles on which such societies are founded, they are liable to form schemes of relief wholly inconsistent with their capabilities, and which therefore in a few years terminate in their dissolution, leaving many deserving claimants in penury and distress. Some instances are specified in the second volume of the author last mentioned. We have also at this moment before us the laws and regulations of a society of this kind, formed in one of the most respectable counties in England, and consisting of more than 800 persons; designed for the relief of the widows of deceased members, or of their orphans, till they attain each the age of 16 years. The payment of the members is made quarterly, and amounts, according to the ages at which they entered, to 1l., 1l. 10s., or 2l. annually: the original pension to the widows was 10l. per ann.

ann. and the same to the children, if no widow survived, till the youngest child arrived at the age of 16 years. Unfortunately, one of the articles provides that, when the stock of the society shall amount to a certain sum, the pensions are to be raised to 15l.; and when to another certain sum, to 20l.; and again to 25l., and so on; and this latter sum is now actually received: but nothing can be a worse criterion than the amount of stock, without reference to the number of members; and there can be no doubt that the society to which we allude, notwithstanding its present apparent prosperous state, is paying more than its means will allow when, after a few years, its original members shall begin to fall off. We are always sorry to see such laudable intentions, as evidently dictated the formation of this and similar societies, defeated by an ignorance of the principles which should govern them; and we cannot but consider it as the duty of every author, writing on subjects like those that are contained in the present treatise, to turn his attention to these minor societies: holding out a hand to guide them, in their deficiency of scientific knowlege, towards the attainment of their truly commendable wishes,—the establishment of a fund for the permanent relief of their widows and orphans.

ART. XIII. *Anacreontis Teii Carmina Latinè reddidit* Gul. Jac. Aislabie, A.M. *Subjiciuntur Anacreontis Epigrammata et Theocriti Anacreonticum in mortuum Adonin.* 12mo. pp. 47. sewed. Ridgways.

MR. AISLABIE has added his university-degree to his name, which is a sufficient intimation that this version of Anacreon is not to be considered as a *lusus juvenilis*, but the work of a more matured scholar. Indeed, we suspect that, unless he could have comforted himself with the thought, "*Et nos ergo manum ferulâ subduximus*," he would scarcely have *shewn up* an exercise bearing so many marks of haste and carelessness. Several of Anacreon's odes have been at different times rendered into elegiac verse, and we recollect to have seen detached pieces in print, although we cannot immediately say where: but a complete version was certainly not an inelegant occupation for the vacant hours of a gentleman and a scholar. Mr. A. dedicates his little volume to the Earl Grey, assuring that nobleman that he is in affability, elegance, and love of literary pursuits, what Anacreon is in poetry; and the author proceeds to enforce the value of this compliment, by stating that he expects nothing in return for it: he himself being, he adds, not like Anacreon, but like

St. Paul, "ἀυλαρχης ἐν οἰς ἐςι." There is an ingenuity in these two comparisons, this pair of portraits, of Earl Grey and Anacreon, Mr. Aislabie and St. Paul, which would have escaped many authors. If a critic, however, might venture to suggest an improvement, it would be that the translator should have resembled his original; and then the likeness between the Statesman and the Apostle might without doubt have been traced with equal facility.

We hope that Mr. Aislabie will pardon a good-natured smile at his dedication; and he will recollect that very few such compositions exist which are not in some way exposed to a smile, more or less extended. In his succeeding short prefatory admonition to his readers, they are apprized that, in the course of the translation, they will occasionally find some scattered beauties from Ovid, Virgil, and Horace, interwoven with those which drop from the translator's own pen. This may be unobjectionable piracy: but we submit to the translator whether, instead of making this *florilegium* like the bee in the wild garden of nature, it would not have been more to his purpose to study the style, general expression, and rythmical cadence of some one elegiac writer, and to have transfused them into his whole composition; or at least to have combined these two objects together. As the case at present stands, Mr. Aislabie's versification resembles that of Martial, more than of any other Latin poet with whom we are acquainted; since, like that epigrammatist, he freely admits all those licences which the more polished writers either altogether excluded, or received but rarely or from necessity alone. We allude to the abrupt and inharmonious cæsura:—the rendering the final *o* of verbs, nouns, &c. short:—the adjectives and participles closing penthameter lines:—trisyllables of all descriptions occupying the same place;—and, though more rarely, the short lines closing with short vowels remaining open. We by no means assert that he will not meet with instances of all these defects in Ovid, but very slight reminiscences of his earlier classical studies at school will remind him that they are defects to be avoided, not models to be copied; and we think, from the classical air of the little volume in many other respects, that the author is as fully aware of this truth as we are, and is less likely to be found guilty on the charge of ignorance than on that of carelessness. Our readers will judge, by this remark, that Mr. Aislabie's style of Latin versification is like that of the well known Vincent Bourne, as far as this want of scrupulous rejection is regarded.

The

The sense is usually well preserved in these translations, as are also the general air and character of what we term Anacreontic writing. All that remains for us, therefore, is to give a few examples of the errors which we have condemned, and in return for them to add a better specimen.

The following line combines the faults of a most inharmonious elision and a trisyllable in a very objectionable place:

'*Quis limen pulsans somnia*, quæso, admit?'

and what shall we say to this?

'*Exiguusque carens osse jacebo cinis.*'

The expression '*carens osse*' is also very harsh and inelegant. Again, in the same ode:

'*Quam fuerit longè cura repulsa* gravis,'

where, in addition to the position of the adjective as it regards versification only, the line is rendered singularly tame and impotent by the objectionable word.

'*Tu plectis nidum, lenis hirundo*, novum.' P. 28.

Here are combined two of the faults which we have noted.

In the figure of Bathyllus, we have the line

'*Pollucis pulchro gaudeat* et femore.' P. 25.

The copula, which is intended to connect two lines, can never be placed so near to the conclusion of the second. The reader will observe the remaining defects of the line. — Another penthameter ends thus:

'—*circa* templa salire tua.'

What is to be said of a verse beginning with the words, '*Quid mihi sŏdales?*' — for shame, Mr. Aislabie.

We have also no inconsiderable doubts as to the correctness of the words, '*Nil de Gўge* * *moror.*' — We cannot expect so careless a poet to be very particular about his final vowels before the letter *s* joined to another consonant, and in consequence we read, '*validus protendere scutum*,' p. 17.

The pause in the penthameter should not fall on a monosyllable, unless by elision. Where is the harmony in such a line as this?

'*Formosam Venus* hinc *excolit ipsa cutem.*' P. 39.

* That the first syllable of this word is frequently long in the Latin poets, as in Virgil, Æn. ix., we do not deny; but the same name frequently varies its quantity as applied to different persons who bear it. Here the metre of the original at once exposes the error: the last line of the original has, however, a spondee in the third place.

It

It was clearly an object with the elegiac poets to confine the sentence to the couplet, as nearly as it could be; or to a double couplet, if the sense would bear the extension: but rarely, if ever, to commence anew in the shorter line. Such lines as the succeeding shew an utter disregard of this obvious rule:

——' *miserescens limina pando,*
Et lychno flammam suppeditante, Puer
Cernitur alatus, pharetris armatus et arcu.
Atteritur dextræ dextra, focus propior
Crinibus humorem depellit; frigore pulso
Si madidus mihi jam *laxior arcus erit,*
Experiamur, ait.—— P. 10.

The passage, too, is in itself but indifferently rendered.

We are sorry to add that we might multiply *ad infinitum* our instances of the defects which we have noticed, and add to them no small gathering of trite phrases and combinations, as in the words, '*da mihi jura, precor,*' p. 36, &c. So constant, indeed, is the recurrence of these defects, that the most favorable specimens, as they appear to us, which we could select, will be discovered to be not free from them.

The ensuing will please our readers. It is a version of the 39th ode, beginning with the words

Ὀΐ' ἐγὼ πίω τὸν οἶνον. κ. τ. λ.

' *Vina bibens, tempus ludis impertior instans,*
Et Musæ exhilarant gaudia nostra leves.
Vina bibens, hilaris sperno curamque metumque:
Consiliumque avidis præcipitatur aquis.
Vina bibens, opto flores atque ebrius auras:
Inde joci, choreæ, Bacchus et ipse juvat.
Vina bibens, nitidis accingor tempora sertis;
Hæret corde Venus, grata puella sinu.
Vina bibens, cœtu juvenum delector amato:
Explicat atque animum vitreus ipse *calix.*
Vina bibens, lucri nihil ultra sordidus opto:
Ultima fata olim qualiacunque manent.' P. 31.

Art. XIV. *Anecdotes of remarkable Insects;* selected from Natural History, and interspersed with Poetry. Illustrated with Cuts. By Joseph Taylor. 12mo. pp. 236. 3s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1817.

Every attempt to render scientific information popular, and accessible to the young, merits the praise of good intention; and in the present instance we cannot withhold our approbation from the general tenor of the execution: since the writer has certainly culled various interesting passages from the writings of eminent poets and naturalists, adapted to the capacities of general readers, and calculated to arrest the attention

attention and excite the admiration of every ingenuous mind. We are confident, however, that the subject would have admitted more nicety and diligence of selection. The pages of Reaumur, Bonnet, Kirby and Spence, &c. might have supplied a richer store of engaging anecdotes than we here find; while a due regard to the more recent and precise arrangements of the animal kingdom would have excluded from the catalogue of *Insects* the Snail, Leech, *Furia*, *Filaria*, and Crab. — *Buprostis* occurring in two successive pages, and *Proscarabæs*, *Pappilio*, and *Crabo*, both in the text and index, are proofs rather of carelessness than of faulty typography. — The *Bombardier* is said to be a *species of those insects called Buprostis*; and, in the next page, we are told that its chief enemy is *a great Carabus* (*another species of Buprostis*). No entomologist needs to be informed of the strange confusion which pervades such statements. The term *Phalænæ* is aukwardly introduced as a synonym of *Silk-worm*, and *Sphinx* as equivalent to the *Death's-head Moth*. Had Mr. Taylor consulted the communications of Mr. Bracy Clarke, or some of our Cyclopædias, he might also have rendered his meagre account of *Œstrus* far more instructive and amusing. — As the hygrometrical indications of the Leech have been found, on examination, to be very far from infallible, they deserved not to be quoted with so much minuteness and confidence. — The death of a healthy and vigorous citizen of Opping, in consequence of the bite of a Spider, as reported by Dr. Salomon Reiselius, appears to be somewhat apocryphal: but we can readily suppose that this ill-starred wight sunk under the effects of his copious libations with his friends, the barber's *ungent* of litharge, and the sudorifics, cordials, and *theriacæ* of his physicians, which all enter into the elements of the story. Instead of this recital of Dr. Reiselius, we could have welcomed some notices of the structure of the organs of vision in the spider, or of the operations of the gossamer species.

In thus adverting, however, to some of the more exceptionable parts of this little volume, we are far from wishing to detract from the value of that information and entertainment which it is fitted to convey to those who are unacquainted with the habitudes of the insect-tribes. — We shall make an extract from two or three pieces which have obtained less publicity than others:

'*On the Duration of the Life of a* FLEA, *by Borrichius. From the Acts of Copenhagen.*

'Pliny represents to us a Greek philosopher, whose chief occupation, for several years together, was, to measure the space skipped over by Fleas. Without giving into such ridiculous researches, I can

can relate an anecdote, which chance discovered to me in regard to this insect.

'Being sent for to attend a foreign lady, who was greatly afflicted with the gout, and having staid, by her desire, to dine with her, she bade me take notice of a flea on her hand. Surprised at such discourse, I looked at the hand, and saw indeed a plump and pampered Flea sucking greedily, and kept fast to it by a little gold chain. The lady assured me, she had nursed, and kept the little animal, at that time, full six years, with exceeding great care, having fed it twice every day with her blood; and when it had satisfied its appetite, she put it up in a little box, lined with silk. In a month's time, being recovered from her illness, she set out from Copenhagen with her Flea; but having returned in about a year after, I took an opportunity of waiting upon her, and among other things, asked after her little insect. She answered me with great concern, that it died through the neglect of her waiting-woman.—What I found remarkable in this story was, that the lady being attacked by chronical pains in the limbs, had recourse in France to very powerful medicines during six weeks; and all this time the Flea had not ceased to feed upon her blood, imbued with the vapours, and yet was not the worse for it.'

'*Ingenuity of the Spider.*

'T. A. Knight, Esq. of Herefordshire, has in a Treatise on the Culture of the Apple and Pear, introduced the following anecdote concerning this curious insect:

"I have frequently placed a spider on a small upright stick, whose base was surrounded by water, to observe its most singular mode of escape. After having discovered that the ordinary means of retreat are cut off, it ascends the point of the stick, and standing nearly on its head, ejects its web, which the wind readily carries to some contiguous object. Along this the sagacious insect effects his escape, not, however, till it has previously ascertained, by several exertions of its whole strength, that its web is properly attached to the opposite end. I do not know that this instance of the sagacity has been noticed by any entomological writer, and I insert it here, in consequence of having seen in some periodical publication, a very erroneous account of the Spider's threads, which are observed to pass from one tree or bush to another in dewy mornings.'

'*The Birth of the* BUTTERFLY.

'When, bursting forth to life and light,
The offspring of enraptured *May*,
The Butterfly, on pinions bright,
Launched in full splendour on the day.

'Unconscious of a mother's care,
No infant wretchedness it knew;
But, as she felt the vernal air,
At once to full perfection grew.

'Her slender form, etherial, light,
Her velvet textured wings unfold,
With all the rainbow's colours bright,
And dropt with spots of burnish'd gold.

'Trembling

'Trembling awhile with joy she stood,
And felt the sun's enlivening ray,
Drank from the skies the vital flood,
And wonder'd at her plumage gay.

'And balanc'd oft her broidered wings,
Thro' fields of air prepar'd to sail;
Then on her vent'rous journey springs,
And floats along the rising gale.

'Go, child of pleasure, range the fields—
Taste all the joys that Spring can give—
Partake what bounteous Summer yields,
And live, while yet 'tis thine to live.

'Go sip the rose's fragrant dew—
The lily's honey'd cup explore—
From flower to flower the search renew,
And rifle all the woodbine's store.

'And let me trace thy vagrant flight,
Thy moments, too, of short repose:
And mark thee, when, with fresh delight,
Thy golden pinions ope and close.

'But hark! while I thus musing stand
Pours on the gale an airy note,
And breathing from a viewless band,
Soft silvery tones around me float.

'They cease—but still a voice I hear,
A whisper'd voice of hope and joy—
Thy hour of rest approaches near,
Prepare thee, mortal! thou must die!

'Yet, start not! on thy closing eyes
Another day shall still unfold;
A sun of milder radiance rise,
A happier age of joys unfold.

'Shall the poor worm that shocks thy sight,
The humblest form in Nature's train,
Thus rise in new born lustre bright,
And yet the emblem teach in vain?

'Ah! where were once her golden eyes,
Her glitt'ring wings of purple pride?
Conceal'd beneath a rude disguise!
A shapeless mass to earth allied.

'Like thee, the helpless reptile lived,
Like thee she toiled, like thee she spun;
Like thine, her closing hour arrived,
Her labours ceased, her web was done.

'And shalt thou, numbered with the dead,
No happier state of being know?
And shall no future sorrow shed,
On thee a beam of brighter glow?

'Is this the bound of power divine,
To animate an insect frame?
Or shall not he who moulded thine
Wake at his will the vital flame?

'Go, mortal! in thy reptile state,
Enough to know to thee is given;
Go, and the joyful truth relate,
Frail child of earth, bright heir of heaven.

ANONYMOUS.'

These anecdotes are printed on a neat type, and illustrated by several wooden cuts. In a somewhat more enlarged, purified, and corrected form, we have reason to believe that they would more amply recompense the compiler's trouble and that of his publishers.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR MAY, 1818.

POETRY.

Art. 15. *Belshazzar's Feast.* A Seatonian Prize Poem, with Notes relative to the History of the Babylonian and Assyrian Empires. By the Rev. T. S. Hughes, A.M. Fellow of Emanuel College, and Junior Proctor of the University. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Mawman, &c. 1818.

It is not often that we meet with so spirited a composition as Mr. Hughes's prize poem. The subject is indeed magnificent, and it is treated with great animation and dignity. We shall select a few passages which, we trust, will fully justify our favourable report:

'Such is thine own impending fate, O King!
Else, why that start? that livid cheek? why fling
The untasted goblet from thy palsied hand?
Why shake thy joints? thy feet forget to stand?
Where roams thine eye? which seems in wild amaze
To shun some object, yet returns to gaze,
Then shrinks again appall'd, as if the tomb
Had sent a spirit from its inmost gloom,
Dire as the unearthly form which met the eye
Of Israel's King, and spoke his destiny;
Dread as the phantom, which in night's dark hour
Reveal'd the terrors of the Almighty's power,
When o'er the couch of Eliphaz it stood
And froze the life-streams of his curdling blood.
Such are the terrors that appal thine *eye*
And blight the promise of expected *joy*.
'"The King"—"the King" burst forth from every guest.
When lo! one universal shriek confest

The cause of horror, as Belshazzar raised
His arm, and pointed where the vision blazed!
For see! enrobed in flame, a mystic shade,
As of a Hand, a red right hand, display'd!
And slowly moving o'er the wall, appear
Letters of Fate, and characters of Fear!
'Tis that Almighty Hand that shakes the pole,
Wings the swift bolt, and bids the thunder roll;
That launch'd each radiant orb, and still sustains
The glowing fabric of the starry plains.'

The opening of Daniel's reply to Belshazzar is very finely managed:

'Unutterably awful was the eye
Which met the Monarch's; and the stern reply
Fell heavy on his soul — "Thy gifts withhold,
Nor tempt the spirit of the Lord with gold:
Ambition's wreath for other brows prepare;
I scorn it — and thou know'st what thorns are there.
Yet he who lowers the proud can raise the weak;
His spirit will have utterance, and I speak."'

We have room but for one extract more.

'This fate foretold, the strains prophetic cease,
But e'er the prophet's feet depart in peace,
The chain of gold upon his neck they *cast*,
The robe of scarlet gird around his *waist*;
And proclamations thro' the land declare
Daniel third ruler, next Assyria's heir.
In the fell carnage of that night's dead hour,
Crush'd mid the ruins of his crumbling power,
Belshazzar fell: but secret was the blow,
Unknown the hand that laid the tyrant low.
'Hades then rose to meet him — then the dead
Burst their sepulchral searments — they who bled
Beneath his ruthless hand, raised the loud yell
Of horrid laughter thro' the depths of hell,
To greet the tyrant! mark them! how they shew
Scorn's finger as he comes, and mock his woe!'

This appropriation of the splendid imagery of Isaiah, xiv. 9., is in the best taste; and indeed the whole poem is of a very superior cast, and highly creditable to the talents of the author, whom we understand to have been long distinguished for his attainments in the University of Cambridge.

The notes will be found useful and valuable both to the scholar and the general reader, throwing considerable light on the history of the Babylonian and the Assyrian empires.

Art. 16. *The Banks of Isis*, and other Poems. By Thomas Gillet. 12mo. pp. 94. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1817.

A very modest and unassuming advertisement, prefixed to this little collection of poems, apprizes us of the great disadvantages under

under which they were composed: stating that the author's education was such only as he could receive at a crowded school during a few months in the twelfth year of his age; when, it appears, he was compelled to enter on a profession injurious to his health, while it deprived him of all farther means of advancing in literary acquirements. Notwithstanding these obstacles, we have no hesitation in saying that the poems are superior to those which we generally find in this department of our critical duties: they are classical, elegant, and chaste; though, at times, we detect the venial blemishes of the less experienced warbler in the Muses' grove. We trust that years will mature this early promise of industry and genius, and realize the hope, which the author indulges, of being able to cultivate 'those studies to which he has been accustomed to resort for pleasure and improvement.'

We copy two short specimens.

STANZAS.

'Launch'd into life's tempestuous sea,
Without or sail or oar,
No compass points my devious way,
No rudder thro' the swelling bay
Guides my lone bark to shore.
But still she's borne,
Thro' tracks forlorn,
Of adverse winds the sport, of angry waves the scorn.

'O that I now could haply reach
Some peaceful friendly port,
Where safely moor'd, at anchor fast,
I might escape the raging blast,
And billows' lawless sport.
No fell despair,
Should haunt me there:
I'd bid a glad farewell to sorrow and to care.

'But ah! no friendly track appears,
Tho' perils thicker swarm,
Yet, yet resign'd, I'll bear on still,
And trust that heavenly Pilot's skill,
Whose voice controls the storm.
He thro' the tide,
My course may guide,
And land me safe at length where peaceful joys preside.

'For know, there is a glorious haven
Far in the radiant skies,
Where tempests ne'er deform the scene,
But all is calm and more serene,
Then e'er was Paradise:
And pleasure's rose
There sweetly blows,
And thro' the realm divine perpetual fragrance throws.'

CANZONET.

'Maiden, let not gloomy sadness
Triumph o'er that gentle breast,
Which should be the seat of gladness,
And of love the downy nest.

'Why from hence is pleasure banish'd?
Youth and beauty still are thine;
Yet the radiant smile is vanish'd
From those rosy lips divine.

'Maiden, faithfully thy lover
Vows he'll ever cherish thee;
Let not then thy sighs discover
Cares from which thou should'st be free.

'Why so long, with sorrow *sitting*,
Hast thou hugg'd her iron chain,
When sweet joy, with air *inviting*,
Courts thee to his golden reign?'

Art. 17. *The Crescent*, a National Poem, to commemorate the glorious Victory at Algiers. By Mrs. M'Mullan. 8vo. pp. 61. Longman and Co.

If perseverance be the road to glory, Mrs. M'Mullan can scarcely fail to arrive in due course of time at the highest honours: but, if other qualifications in the mind of a poet, such as taste, genius, judgment, and discrimination, be essential as guides and companions to the temple of fame, the result of this lady's efforts may possibly be more questionable. We mean not, however, to disparage unjustly the short poem before us, which contains perhaps fewer blemishes than we had occasion to notice in some previous productions of the same pen; and in which the sentiments are patriotic and unexceptionable, while the language is not void of poetic spirit. We have, however, in this as in all our *national* poems, too much of the flummery of 'Britain's glory,' 'Britain's thunder,' 'Britannia's ear,' and all the other virtues and qualities of that good lady, of which the whole tribe of our minor poets are so fond of giving us an abundant dose. We recommend to Mrs. M. our former advice with regard to revision, accuracy in language, and discrimination.

Art. 18. *Transmigration*; a Poem: containing an Outline of the Pythagorean Philosophy, and of the Opinions of the Ancients on many Subjects. To which are added Miscellaneous Pieces. Principally from the Pen of the late W. B. Esq. 12mo. pp. 92. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

We must do the late Mr. W. B. the justice to suppose that, whatever portion of these miscellaneous rhymes proceeded from his pen, it was never intended by him to advance farther into the world than the limits of his writing-case; and that he is indebted to the *kindness* of his friends, for introducing to the notice of the public that which was probably designed only as the trivial amusement of a vacant hour. The quaintness of some of the minor

pieces is at times amusing, and brings to our recollection the *milk and watery* features of the *Wordsworthian* style:

'A young Philo-misanthropist,
From social converse hiss'd,
Much did not care,
But sought the open air,
And o'er the fields he took his healthful way.
Before his eyes a rabbit stray'd,
In downy fur array'd:
Poor animal, said he, I will not spoil thy play.

'He left the rabbit playing on the grass,
And near it would not pass,
But turn'd into a wood:
Then up did rise
A glorious prize,
A pheasant-cock all starr'd with purple eyes.
Fly on, said he, thank God I want not food.'

All things considered, the author's age is somewhat surprizing:

'Twice one-and-twenty years have passed away,
And now, once more, I see my natal day.'

The succeeding line, however, exemplifies a truth for which we were more prepared:

'Yet still *Discretion lingers in the rear.*'

Art. 19. *Amatory and other Verses.* By Howard Fish. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

We really feel obliged to Mr. Fish for having modestly designated these little pieces by the name of "Verses," and not, as is usually done in similar cases, calling them by that of "Poems." Mediocrity is their general feature; and the author himself does not appear to rank them in higher estimation than may be conceived to be due to such "trifles" as cannot cost either time or labour in the composition, nor, when composed, be productive of much utility. Since the author professes not 'to be above wholesome advice,' we would suggest the want of a correcting hand in the following lines:

'Would *fell* a son or parent *with the dust.*' P. 6.

'O God forefend, we never may behold
Britannia's heroes slay her sons for gold!' P. 6.

We conceive that here the author has expressed exactly the reverse of his meaning; and that for 'never' we must read *ever*, in order to extract any sense from the couplet.

'The Bank *is broke*' (for broken).

''Tis he who checks rebels.'

'One evening, while musing *along by* the stream.'

'Proclaim *thy* requiem, dear *fields.*'

'Let's *stray the margin* of the ripling stream,
Do man, as *ye'd* be done unto,' &c. &c.

Art. 20. *A Poetical Epistle to the King of Hayti.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

If the public conduct and the private virtues of his Majesty of Hayti were modelled in conformity with the obliging counsels of his anonymous correspondent, there could be little doubt that a rich reward of happiness would result both to himself and to his subjects: but, if he were doomed to peruse the admonitory epistle before us, and enabled to "understand what he readeth," we have too much sympathy for human afflictions not to commiserate his case, and to wish him a safe deliverance from a sea of troubles, from which we have ourselves so lately and so fortunately effected our escape.

Art. 21. *The Search;* and other Poems. By J. Edmeston, jun. 12mo. pp. 108. 4s. Boards. Conder. 1817.

A spiritless and meagre collection of songs and ballads is here appended to a composition of somewhat larger dimensions, in which is represented the original and interesting game of *hide and seek*, by a company of hapless itinerants, who are all in pursuit of a fleeting and visionary phantom called 'Happiness.' After a long and unsuccessful chase, 'Religion' enters, and informs the travellers that she alone has the power to grant their desires, and to conduct them to the haven of which they are in search. The truth appearing undeniable, it gains immediate and universal assent; and the result is that they agree to take 'Religion' at her word, and embrace her offers.

NOVELS.

Art. 22. *Northern Irish Tales.* Two Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

The author prefixes to these tales the promise of a continuation of them, and then offers to us this extraordinary passage:

'I regret that the present *ones* are not more worthy of the reader's attention. But with all our efforts, there are times when smothered imagination will not *kindly kindle*, and invention, like the sucker of a choked pump, brings up no water, or mixed with gravel and sand. Happily, there is a FLOW as well as an EBB, in the mind of man. I may hope, therefore, as I advance, to improve, and that my latter end will be better than my beginning.'

Supposing the three tales related in these volumes to be written in the order in which they stand, this hope may perhaps be realized, since the last is undoubtedly the best: but why trouble the world with the '*sand and gravel*?'—why not wait till the stream *flows clearly*? We could then excuse this happy confusion of metaphors, which leads us so quickly through *fire and water*, and encourage the author to proceed: but what encouragement can we give if the specimen be bad, and he acknowleges that it is?

We cannot comprehend why these are called Northern Irish Tales, since they might as well have received their designation from any other quarter of the United Kingdom. No events happen but those which might have occurred *as probably* in the south of England, as in the scenes in which they have been introduced; few

few or no peculiarities of Northern Irish manners are delineated; nor have we any characteristic evidence of their locality. Though the heroes in all the tales are called Irish, we have nothing to identify them; and *Leslie*, in the last tale, exhibits not the slightest mark of this pretended country of his nativity.

As to the tales themselves, they certainly display some imagination, but more extravagance. What shall we say to the first, (*Stanley*,) in which not only is the hero brought to the gallows, but the prayer read by the clergyman, and the Psalm sung by the multitude, on the occasion, are introduced at full length? *Nelson*, the second tale, is insipid and common-place, but has the negative merit of occupying little more than 50 pages. *Leslie* fills the second volume, and, independently of the improbable incident of the virtuous Julia travelling forty miles to visit the betrothed of another woman, and who had declared love to her, it sickens the reader by foretelling mischiefs from dreams and ill omens that previously occur. It deserves, however, its share of praise; and indeed all of them bear the appearance of proceeding from a man of some genius and reading.

Art. 23. *The Advertisement*, or Twenty Years ago. 12mo. Three Vols. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

We cannot but think that this novel contains even more egregious improbabilities than it commonly falls to the lot of man to observe in similar productions. A lady, with her infant, comes to England from abroad in search of her husband, but, happening to lose on the road the certificate of her marriage, delicacy deters her from presenting herself to her husband's family, and compels her to reside during twenty years with some obliging strangers; who, as we find in vol. i., page 73., 'had offered her an asylum equal with herself.' Indeed, throughout this performance, we meet with the same incorrect and affected jargon which we have so often occasion to censure: for instances:—vol. i. p. 21., 'the sun had reached its *highest climax*;'—vol. ii. p. 49., 'piquante airs;'—p. 81. 'he had taken the unprecedented liberty of *introducing upon her privacy*;'—p. 137. 'there was in Medora an archness of expression, &c. &c. so peculiarly her own that it was *equally as vain* to imitate as to describe its characteristic: it was like the ever-changing plumage of the cooing dove!' &c. &c.

NATURAL HISTORY, BOTANY, &c.

Art. 24. *Observations on the Natural History of Swallows*; with a collateral Statement of Facts relative to their Migration, and to their brumal Torpidity: and a Table of Reference to Authors. Illustrated with Figures of Five Species, engraved on Wood, by Willis. To which is added, a General Catalogue of British Birds, *with the Provincial Names for each*, &c. &c. &c. By Thomas Forster, F. L. S. Corresp. Memb. Acad. Nat. Sciences at Philadelphia, &c. &c. &c. Sixth Edition, enlarged. 8vo. pp. 113. 5s. Boards. Underwood. 1817.

This plenitude of title is immediately followed up by an equal liberality of prefatory matter, including general observations, some

of which might have been prefixed to almost any work on Natural History, and others to almost any treatise on Ornithology. The *third* preface, or that which properly belongs to the present impression, apprizes us that the author has been induced to give the natural history of the Swallow in general, in addition to his observations on its brumal retreat. 'I have also,' he says, 'added what is known of the remaining species of the genus, both with the view to make this monograph as perfect as possible, and to render the distinctive characters of the different species more familiar to those who may observe, or may be of assistance in determining, the brumal place of the Swallow, by noticing it on its passage, or by discovering it in its torpidity; since, from the indefinite descriptions of many of the ancient naturalists, it is often very difficult to ascertain the particular species of which they treated. And I have interspersed the whole tract with numerous new observations.'

The species of *Hirundo* first and most particularly described are the four which visit Great Britain; and a plate is exhibited of the *esculenta* which furnishes the edible nests: but most of the exotic species are very briefly described, and in many instances only named or defined, with a notice of their residence. We suspect, also, that the list is not complete; because, though we have no correct catalogue at hand with which we can compare it, we miss the *Ludoviciana*, *violacea*, and the *marsh*, *crested*, and *fawn-coloured* species, of Levaillant.

The account of each of the British species is preceded by a list of its more common appellations in different countries: but the manners and economy of the various sorts might have been more copiously detailed. A remark or anecdote, however, is occasionally introduced, which is not to be found in the more ordinary compilations. Thus we are told that the common Sparrow 'frequently occupies, during winter, the nest of the absent Martin; who, returning in spring, is forced by actual combat to regain its neat. It is said sometimes to call in the aid of other Martins, and to plaster up the nest with mud when the Sparrow is in it, and thus smother him. In the year 1800, I saw a contest between a Sparrow and a Martin, which lasted some hours, under the eaves of a house at Tunbridge Wells, in Kent.'

Mr. Forster supports the argument in favour of the migration of the Swallow tribe. The opposite reasoning, so ingeniously urged by the late Hon. Daines Barrington, might have been more minutely sifted: but the present author has, perhaps, said enough to convince the candid inquirer that many of the alleged accounts of the immersion and torpor of Martins, &c. are either fabulous or exaggerated; that few of them are properly authenticated; and that the passage of the birds in question from one latitude to another, and their appearance in Senegal, &c. during their absence from the northern regions, are matters of well-attested fact. The rare examples of weak or young stragglers being overtaken by the cold, and being found in a benumbed or starving condition, can never solve the disappearance of the multitudes which flutter over immense

immense tracts of country, during the summer, in quest of their insect-food; since, if all these fell into torpor on the first approaches of the cold season, they would be found in far greater numbers than the dormant Bats. There is reason to suppose, also, that the migrating squadrons direct their course at an elevation in the atmosphere beyond the range of human vision; and that such detachments, as occasionally alight on ships in a very languid and debilitated state, have been driven out of their course by violent winds. Of all migratory birds, the *Hirundines*, from their capacity of sustaining long and rapid flight, seem to be the best adapted for distant travel; and yet their annual migration has been most obstinately contested. If we reflect, however, on the velocity of their motions, and the comparatively short stages by which they may proceed to the warmer latitudes, — as, for example, by crossing the English Channel and the Straights of Gibraltar, — we shall find nothing inexplicable in the now commonly received opinion of their shifting their quarters periodically, like so many other families of their class. Besides, if the Swift be supposed to sleep during the whole time of its absence from England, *i. e.* nearly nine months out of the twelve, the preponderance of its torpid over its active state would be without a parallel in the annals of nature.

Mr. Forster has agreeably sprinkled his essay with appropriate quotations from some of the antient writers: but he seems to have acquired somewhat of the *flightiness* of his subject, when he seriously maintains that the cranium of the swallow is indicative of its migratory propensities.

To his section on the opinions of writers, in different ages, respecting the natural history of the Swallow, he has subjoined an index of the passages to which he refers; and extracts from journals, intimating the earliest and latest appearances of Swallows and some other migratory birds, in different places. By the comparison of a series of tables, constructed according to the pattern exhibited, and drawn up in different countries from accurate observations, the author is of opinion that much light may be thrown on the migration of the Swallow. 'The direction of the wind,' he observes, 'should always be particularly noticed at the time of the Swallow's arrival. The wind is often wrongly registered in journals of the weather, owing to the indicatorial letter under the weather-cocks being put up according to the compass instead of the sun. I had some difficulty in getting the meridian for fixing the letter of a large wind-vane which I put up at Walthamstow the present spring, and I was hence induced to inquire into the mode of fixing them in general, which led to the knowledge of the above fact. If the weather-cock be put according to the compass, then will the northern letter be above 20 degrees to the west of the true north.'

The remainder of this small but not uninteresting volume is occupied with a catalogue of British birds, by Mr. Edward Forster, jun., exhibiting their scientific and provincial appellations. The work, on the whole, would admit of yet farther enlargement, and the correction of a few verbal inaccuracies.

Art.

Art. 25. *A Practical Introduction to Botany*, illustrated by References, under each Definition, to Plants of easy Access, and by numerous Figures; and also comprising a Glossary of Botanic Terms. By the Rev. William Bingley, A.M. F.L.S. Author of Animal Biography, &c. 12mo. pp. 89. 4s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Fenner. 1817.

Nothing at first sight appears more easy than to write an elementary work on botany; and, if we be indifferent as to the mode in which this task is executed, perhaps the opinion is not altogether without good foundation: since the work might consist of merely the explanation of a few terms, illustrated by such plates as we can procure at a cheap rate, by copying them on a reduced scale from other works of superior merit. This, however, is not all that is required to convey instruction to those who are yet unacquainted with botany; unless we can suppose that they are to be initiated in the science with as little regard to their feelings, as the master of an academy observes in laying the ground-work of a classical education: but botany, in a popular point of view, is designed to be the source of elegant amusement, rather than of laborious exertion; and the mind of the beginner must be allured to the study by presenting to him beautiful and curious objects for inspection, and interesting topics of inquiry. By degrees, a taste for the science will grow on the pupil, and we may then expect him to attempt the more dry and repulsive parts of this study. — The present small volume, as its author has very properly remarked, 'is not intended to supersede the larger and more valuable introductions to the study of botany; particularly Professor Martyn's Letters, and Sir James Edward Smith's Elementary Treatise.' (Pref.) Had such an expectation ever entered the mind of Mr. Bingley, we cannot disguise from him that we are persuaded it would have been inevitably and sadly disappointed.

The work before us, we think, cannot be better characterized than by saying that it is a very brief and meagre glossary of botanical terms, thrown out of alphabetical order, and arranged in something of a systematic manner: but, even in this short exposition of the language of botany, we have had occasion to remark several inaccuracies, which have no longer a place in the best modern elementary books on this science. Mr. Bingley still adheres to the old notion respecting those appendages to plants which Linné has denominated *Fulcra*, and defines them to be 'those small parts of plants, the chief use of which is to strengthen and support them.' (P. 26.) This cannot, surely, be descriptive of the glands of the Moss-rose, the Bracte or Floral leaf of the Lime-tree and Hyacinth, or the Stipules of the Vetch; yet all these are given by Mr. B. under the head of *Fulcra*. — The *Calyx*, or flower-cup, is stated 'to be formed of one or more *green* or *yellow* leaves, situated at a small distance from or close to the blossom, and its chief use is to enclose and protect the other parts.' (P. 28.) According to this definition, the Fuchsia and garden-Nastertium have no calyx; and the Spathe of the Narcissus must be arranged under some other head. — The *Corolla*, we had thought, was no longer

longer regarded by the intelligent botanist 'as the termination of the inner bark of a plant,' (p. 33.): but such is the respect in which the opinions of Linné are held by Mr. Bingley, that he endeavours to give new currency to this obsolete theory.

The *Stamen*, according to the present author, usually consists of three parts, the *Filament*, the *Anther*, and the *Pollen*. (P. 39, 40.) Surely the *Pollen* must be considered as a part of the *Anther:* but this distinction, we presume, rests on the same principle which has induced the author to divide a herb into three parts, viz. the root, the *plant*, and the fructification. (P. 2.) He defines the *cerculium* or heart of the seed (the embryo of modern writers) to be 'that part which is the future plant in miniature,' (p. 45.); an opinion altogether unsupported by the most minute and accurate examination of the anatomy of the seed. The terms *Umbel*, *Cyme*, and *Spadix*, are three times explained in the course of the work; first under the head Receptacle, next under that of Aggregate Flowers, and lastly, under the head of Inflorescence. This unnecessary repetition might well have been spared, in a performance so professedly abridged.

In the short notice respecting the classification of plants, Mr. B. observes; 'The whole vegetable kingdom is distributed into 24 classes. These *classes* are divided into *orders*, which are subdivided into *genera* or *tribes;* and these genera are further divided into *species* or *individuals.*' (P. 53.) Surely no two things can be more distinct than *species* and *individuals*. We must also be permitted to enter our protest against the Passion-flower being employed to illustrate the class *Gynandria*, (p. 57.); the stamens in this plant being obviously placed not on the pistil but on a circular support which surrounds it.

The plates accompanying this publication are but indifferently executed, and are, in general, on too reduced a scale to be very useful. It will be difficult also for a beginner to draw from them the whole benefit of that illustration, which they would afford if they were accompanied by more complete explanations.

LAW.

Art. 26. *Tyranny of the Poor Laws exemplified.* Englishmen! 'tis your little all.' 12mo. pp. 15. Bath, Meyler.

Art. 27. *Poor Laws.* (No. 2.) 12mo. pp. 21. Bath, Gye.

Art. 28. *The Village System*, being a Scheme for the Gradual Abolition of Pauperism, and immediate employment and provisioning of the People. By Robert Gourlay. 12mo. pp. 40. Bath, Gye.

These pamphlets teach the poor that they are 'slaves, worse conditioned than those of the West-India planter;'—that 'it is impossible for *them* to be worse off than they now are, and consequently *that they* have nothing to dread from the power of others;'—nothing to hope from activity, nothing to fear from idleness;'—that, 'become the servant of servants, a parish bondsman, with neither property nor personal liberty now known to *him*, a pauper of England owes *nothing* to government,' since 'no invasion, no change

change of any sort, could possibly make his situation worse than it is;' — and that the rich, who add their annual millions to the millions which, in one mode of charitable relief or another, public as well as private, are constantly contributing to the comfort and support of the poor, are no better than 'the Beys and Mamelukes of Egypt,' while they are thus the means of continuing 'the loathsome tyranny of the poor-laws, the vilest tyranny that ever crushed the liberties of any people.' — When the printing, publishing, and distribution among poor people, of such statements as these, can possibly be productive of any effect but mischief, then can we give to Mr. Gourlay, as a writer on the poor-laws, any other character than that of a man led away in the madness and the blindness of his zeal, (we would put the mildest possible construction on his conduct,) to scatter fire-brands in every direction around him; in the full persuasion that they are the best things in the world for putting out the raging fire which, as he fancies, will speedily consume one half of the national wealth and entirely destroy our national prosperity.

The sovereign remedy for all the evils of the poor-laws, real or imaginary, which this author suggests, is the spreading among the poor the knowlege of their right to petition parliament for whatever they want, or fancy that they want; — by their 'talking of it openly, talking of it loudly, without being afraid;' — and the magic operation of this single principle is 'to set the whole population of this nation of hopeless, dejected, woe-worn paupers to work on double pay.' In furtherance of this scheme, he proposes a complicated sort of Agrarian law, to which an infinitude of objections might readily be urged, but one will be sufficient to demonstrate its absurdity; namely, that its avowed object is to double the price of labour, though every body who has the least knowlege on the subject must be aware that, generally speaking, when our agriculture and our manufactures are in a flourishing state, labour in England is already too high. Mr. Gourlay's hints for promoting the more general education of the poor would be worthy of commendation, were it not for the spirit in which they are written and the views with which they are promulgated. We think, however, that every advantage, which could possibly be derived from giving to the children of the poor such moral and religious instruction as may be useful to them in the station of life which they are most likely to occupy, might easily be attained without taking from the magistrates the power of setting such of those children, as are dependant on the parish for their support, to work for their maintenance until they reach the age of 12; though we are not prepared to say that they should, in all cases, be sent out to labour at so early an age as seven, which is the period now fixed by law for the commencement of the magistrate's discretionary power over them in this respect.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 26. *A Review (and complete Abstract) of the Reports of the Board of Agriculture*, from the Midland Department of England, &c. By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. pp. 650. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Review-

Reviewers are not deficient in that "better part of valour," discretion. Whatever liberties we may now and then take with some unlucky author, we are rarely so indiscreet as to venture any with one another; and, if we put ourselves in a sparring attitude, it is done with the muffles on. Mr. Marshall is himself a Reviewer, on a Colossal scale; having nearly completed, by his own unassisted industry and perseverance, a review and abstract of almost the hundred volumes, "the Thousand and One Days' Entertainments," which have been published or printed by the Board of Agriculture. He began his labour like an old husbandman. He first set his *threshing-machine* to work on the whole crop, and lustily did he lay about him! The next operation was to winnow the chaff from the corn; and the heap, to be sure, has been piteously shrunken. Another volume, which will be the fifth, is intended to complete the abstract of the whole. The Reports of the Board have generally passed under our own notice as they appeared. That many of them are very heavy and diffuse must be felt and acknowleged by every one who has read them: but it will likewise be admitted that they contain a mass of useful statistic information.

In the present volume, Mr. Marshall has taken the Midland Department of England; reducing by his pentagraph, into a reasonable compass, the Reports on Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, Warwickshire, Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and a principal part of Cambridgeshire.

An account of the plan which the author has adopted, and of the manner in which he has carried it into execution, may be found in M. R. Vol. lxi. p. 352. His own personal knowlege of the counties comprized in the present volume has enabled him to correct many errors in the Reports, and to communicate information from the stores of his own observation and experience.—We regret to see that the acerbity against the President of the Board, which we deprecated on a former occasion, yet remains unmitigated.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Chester*, at the Visitation of that Diocese in July and August, 1817. By George Henry Law, D.D. F.R. and A.S. Lord Bishop of Chester. 4to. pp. 35. Rodwell. 1817.

The Right Reverend author of this charge enforces the common topics of episcopal admonition in a plain and sensible manner, but without any extraordinary force of argument or novelty of illustration. He warns his clergy against some of the Calvinistical doctrines which are so very prevalent *out* of the church, and of which the preachers are at present very numerous *in* the church: but Calvinism is so much embodied in the Thirty-nine articles, that we do not see how the clergy can ever attack the evil genius of Calvinism with any chance of success, as long as these articles themselves are invested with an authority which no clergyman can well contravene while he remains in the communion of the church. The Bishop allows, p. 27, that 'the strongest argument in favour of a church-establishment is its utility:' but in what can the uti-

utility of an ecclesiastical establishment be so resplendently manifested as in the moral instruction of the people? If, then, any among the Thirty-nine articles of the Church of England have a tendency to relax the force of moral obligation, and so far to militate against the moral utility of the establishment, ought they to exist? Of this kind are those articles which relate to *original sin* and *vicarious punishment*, or which represent virtue itself as no better than sin unless associated with the belief of certain dogmata. Would not the Church be well rid of these noxious incumbrances? Or can the Establishment ever produce its full measure of moral usefulness as long as they remain? The worthy Bishop talks, p. 23., of Calvinistic error as leading 'to crime:' but he does not sufficiently consider that the root of this error, which he imputes to his Calvinistic brethren, may be traced to the Articles, to which his Lordship has several times declared his unfeigned assent, as well as to those among his clergy whom he denominates Calvinistic. He speaks (p. 20.) of the Calvinistic 'doctrine of assurance' as 'at variance with every principle of natural and revealed religion:' but we would humbly request permission to ask how the doctrine which he himself inculcates, of innate depravity or 'a debased and tainted nature,' (p. 8.) and of the punishment of the innocent for the guilty, can be reconciled to the religion either of reason or of the Scriptures? The truth is, that the Thirty-nine articles are a mill-stone round the neck both of the Bishops and the clergy; which prevents the ministers of the Establishment from affording that free and undissembled exposition of scriptural truth and inculcation of moral duty, by which they would otherwise be more generally distinguished.

Art. 31. *An Address delivered to the Young Persons who were confirmed at the late Visitation of the Diocese of Chester*, in July and August, 1817. By George Henry Law, D.D. F.R. and A.S. Lord Bishop of Chester. 12mo. 2d. Printed at Chester.

This is an unaffected and simple discourse, well suited to the occasion, and well calculated to make a good impression on those to whom it is addressed.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *Vice Triumphant, the Remedy proposed easy and effectual:* with the Statement of a New Hypothesis to explain Accountableness. By Samuel Spurrell. 12mo. pp. 83. Boards. Hunter. 1817.

We are no great friends to moral theories founded on the uncertain basis of hypothesis. In all inquiries after truth, it is at least highly desirable that the corner-stone of the argument should be made to rest, as much as it may be possible, on what is fixed and incontrovertible, not on the fickle and fluctuating ground of assumption. The *new hypothesis*, by which Mr. Spurrell proposes to remedy the vices of mankind so *easily and effectually*, is this: that man is the sovereign disposer of his own conduct: that *reason* is sufficient to enable him not only to ascertain the will of his Maker,

but also to perform, *with facility*, whatever duties are required: (vid. p. 29.) ergò, if the reasoning power be cultivated and improved to the utmost, a willing and easy obedience to the divine commands, and consequently both present comfort and future happiness, are the immediate and indisputable results. Such are the summary arrangements which this gentleman has planned for the benefit of mankind. Notwithstanding, however, the very great facility with which he proposes to carry his theory into practice, we cannot but fancy that, if he had looked a little more attentively into his Bible, or had considered the moral state of the antient heathen world at the time when the Gospel was first promulgated, he would not have so earnestly insisted on the sufficiency of human reason either to ascertain the will of God, or to perform it when ascertained: — he would not have made the intellect of man to supersede the revealed word of God; — nor have proposed that, as an 'effectual remedy' for vice, which is often made to prolong and increase its empire.

Art. 33. *Moral Culture;* attempted in a Series of Lectures, delivered to the Pupils and Teachers of the Old and New-Meeting Sunday-Schools, in Birmingham: interspersed with a variety of illustrative Anecdotes; &c. &c. By James Luckcock. 12mo. pp. 290. Baldwin and Co.

Much simplicity of style and language is here combined with an extensive knowlege of men and manners, and made to aid the cause of virtue. The maxims are plain, useful, and practical: the inquiries are temperate and rational; and the insipidity and weariness of the didactic style are relieved by a judicious intermixture of anecdotes, interesting in themselves and illustrative of the truths which they are meant to confirm.

Art. 34. *Means of improving the Condition of the Poor in Morals and Happiness considered,* in a Lecture delivered at *The Minor Institute,* to which is prefixed, A short Account of that Institution. By Thomas Williams. Published *by* Request. * 8vo. pp. 64. 2s. stitched. Hatchard.

The *Minor Institute*, it seems, is an association of individuals formed for the purpose of 'disseminating useful knowlege extensively among the middle and industrious classes;' and lectures are delivered at its house in Chiswell Street by its own members on various subjects, according to the plan of its more noted rivals. The pamphlet before us contains the substance of one of these lectures; in which the author makes a detailed statement, derived chiefly from Colquhoun, of the population and income of the country as they regard the poor in particular; and he then gives a succinct view of the various popular modes of bettering their condition, and points out how their improvement has been and is retarded. We observe nothing very new in this lecture, but it has the merit of conveying its matter in clear language, and is inspired by the best intentions.

* On several occasions, we have asked who this publisher is, but never could obtain any account of him.

Cor-

Correspondence.

Mr. Hewlett requests us 'to correct an error into which (he says) we have fallen, when we thought we were exposing an error of his.' In the review of his Commentaries, (M. R. for March last, p. 245.) we quoted the following passage: "Other writers, especially Orpheus in the verses ascribed to him, speak of the delivery of the two tablets of the law from God and of the institution of the Hebrew rites. Diod. Sic. lib. i. p. 48. ed. Rhodomanni;" on which we observed that nothing like this was to be found in the passage in question, nor elsewhere in Diodorus; and that, if any antient author attributed such verses to Orpheus, they were probably spurious. Mr. H. maintains that his reference is correct. We have only at hand Wesseling's edition of Diodorus, in which the pages of Rhodoman are marked *in the inner margin, (utriusque paginas margini adpingi jussi; Stephanicæ ad oram exteriorem,* in interiore Rhodomanianæ." Wess. Pref.) and p. 48. contains neither letter nor line concerning either Orpheus or Moses. The imputation of error, which Mr. H. proposes to return to us, must therefore remain where it was originally placed. We never meant to deny that Diodorus speaks of the institutions of Moses, but only that he quoted any verses from Orpheus respecting them. The verses in question, it appears, are cited by Eusebius in the Præp. Evang. The reader will judge whether we had reason to pronounce them spurious, when he knows that they are given on the authority of Aristobulus, the Jew; and that Cudworth, Eschenbach, Tiedemann, Wyttenbach, and Gesner, suppose them to be the work of a forger.

On the other topics of Mr. H.'s letter,—the necessity of a knowlege of German in an editor of the Bible, and the propriety of noticing what Eichhorn and Bishop Marsh have written on the composition of Genesis and the first three Evangelists,—we leave our readers to form their own opinion.

The author of 'Sensibility,' &c. is informed that a report of that work will find admission in our pages in due course.

Z. Z. states that the account of Hammerfest, which we quoted in our last Number, (p. 416.) is not the first mention of that northern town, as he has met with it in Bourn's Gazetteer, a work adapted to the use of young persons. We have not, however, this publication at hand to consult, and can say nothing farther on the subject.

Mr. Bicheno will see his pamphlet introduced in our present Number.

*** The Appendix to Vol. lxxxv. of the Monthly Review is published with this Number, and contains (as usual) a variety of articles in Foreign Literature; with the *Title, Table of Contents,* and *Index,* for the Volume.

☞ In the last Review, p. 355. l. 17., 'for explode' r. '*explore.*'

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1818.

ART. I. *Narrative of an Expedition to explore the River Zaire*, usually called the Congo, in South Africa, in 1816, under the Direction of Captain J. K. Tuckey, R. N. To which *is* added, the Journal of Professor Smith; some general Observations on the Country and its Inhabitants; and an Appendix: containing the Natural History of that Part of the Kingdom of Congo through which the Zaire flows. Published by Permission of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. 4to. pp. 580. and Fourteen Plates. 2l. 2s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

IN our account of Riley's captivity in Africa, (M. R. for October last, p. 127.) it was our melancholy duty to record the unfortunate result of the expedition fitted out by the Government to explore the course of the Zaire or Congo river, together with the death of the enterprizing commander of it, Captain Tuckey, and most of his scientific associates. The present volume is the monument to their memory, which has been executed by Mr. Barrow, one of the Secretaries to the Admiralty; and a painful history it relates, although less discouraging to future persons who may embark in the cause of African discovery, than we might have expected from the first and general contemplation of the catastrophe. — Considerable attention has been paid by the editor to the materials of which he became the depository, and which have been greatly amplified by the insertion of his own reflections and deductions from the account given by the travellers. Their narratives, however, are properly preserved in a distinct form; any deviation from which, we think, would have rendered the publication very unsatisfactory.

The volume, as now constituted, comprizes, 1. A very long Introduction by the Editor. — 2. Captain Tuckey's Narrative. — 3. A Journal by Professor Smith, a scientific Member of the Expedition. — 4. A division intitled 'General Observations' by the Editor, containing a View of the State of the Country and People bordering on the Zaire, as collected from the preceding narratives, and some few other sources; —

and 5. an Appendix of five Numbers, consisting chiefly of Botanical matter. It will be the simplest mode of arrangement for us to consider the Introduction, the Narrative, and the 'General Observations' in the first instance; and to reserve Professor Smith's Journal and the Appendix for another article.

"The Zaire," says Purchas, (we quote from the Introduction,) "is of such force that no ship can get in against the current, but neer to the shore: yea, it prevails against the ocean's saltnesse threescore, and as some say, fourscore miles within the sea, before his proud waves yeeld their full homage, and receive that salt temper in token of subjection. Such is the haughty spirit of that stream, overrunning the low countries as it passeth, and swollen with conceit of daily conquests, and daily supplies, which, in armies of showers, are by the clouds sent to his succour, runnes now in a furious rage, thinking even to swallow the ocean, which before he never saw, with his mouth wide-gaping eight-and-twentee miles, as Lopez affirmeth, in the opening; but meeting with a more giant-like enemie which lies lurking under the cliffes to receive his assault, is presently swallowed in that wider wombe, yet so, as always being conquered, he never gives over, but in an eternall quarrel, with deepe and indented frownes in his angry face, foaming with disdaine, and filling the aire with noise, (with fresh helpe) supplies those forces which the salt sea hath consumed." This quaint and fantastical description has been partly verified by observations of late voyagers, and thence regarded as a corroboration of the hypothesis of Maxwell, so strongly embraced by Park, that the Niger was emptied into the ocean through this channel. Among the objections to this suggestion, the length of the course of such a river is undoubtedly one of the most serious: for, if we presume it to flow over a space of four thousand miles, it must follow as a necessary consequence that the source must be at a very considerable height indeed above the level of the sea; and it does not appear that Park passed over any mountains of extraordinary elevation in order to reach the Niger. To this remark it is answered by the editor that, if we assume three thousand feet as the height of the source, we shall have an average slope of nine inches to the mile in the course of four thousand miles, which is more than has been calculated of the descent of the Amazons in S. America. It was clearly conceived by our Government that this and some other objections to the hypothesis were easily removed; and we have always imagined, in common with them, that the arguments in favour of it, to which we have formerly adverted more at large, greatly preponderated: so that the general appearance of a

justi-

justification of the expedition, which pervades the introduction, strikes us as unnecessary.

To solve these geographical problems relative to the Niger, a double expedition was prepared: the one, to follow the course of Park, and descend the Niger, as far as it might be practicable; the other, to explore the Zaire upwards to its source. Of the calamities which attended the former in its outset, we have spoken elsewhere, and have no farther information to offer relative to its subsequent operations. The history of the latter is now before us. — In procuring vessels adapted for the navigation of the Zaire, two essential qualifications presented themselves; viz. that they should draw little water, and that they should afford sufficient accommodation for the officers and crew, the naturalists and their collections. Sir Joseph Banks suggested the idea of a steam-vessel, as a saving of human labour, and a mode of impelling the vessel against a very rapid current; and experiments were made in deference to this opinion: but it was found that an engine of sufficient power was so great an incumbrance in the vessel, as to be likely to prove more detrimental than advantageous, and the steam-plan was ultimately abandoned. The *Congo*, which was the name given to the vessel destined for the expedition, was highly approved by those who were to navigate her; although, having been originally fitted to contain the engine, she was not very sightly in the eyes of many naval men: — the principle on which she was built was similar to that which was proposed by the late Earl Stanhope, as most proper for ships of war, in combining the greatest number of requisite qualifications. As it could scarcely be doubted that shallows and rapids would occur in the river, a double boat, consisting of two of thirty-five feet long and six feet broad, was prepared at the suggestion of Captain Tuckey; and a kind of connecting platform was added to it, the whole capable of containing from twenty to thirty men, with three months' provisions. These were stowed in the Dorothy transport, which was ordered to accompany the expedition to the river Zaire. The greater part of the persons engaged were left to the choice of the commander, and were all volunteers on the occasion. The scientific gentlemen consisted of Professor Smith, (of Norway,) *Botanist*; Mr. Cranch, *Collector of Objects of Natural History*; Mr. Tudor, *Comparative Anatomist*; Mr. Galwey, a friend of Capt. T.; and Mr. Lockhart, *a Gardener from the King's Gardens at Kew.* Some artificers were included, and twelve marines; and, with Lieutenant Hawkey, Mr. Fitzmaurice the Master, the Mates, Surgeon, seamen, and two natives of Congo, the whole party consisted of fifty-six persons. Although

the instructions from the Lords of the Admiralty defined the objects in view, and in their opinion the means best adapted to ensure the accomplishment of them, at considerable length, much was left to the discretion of the Commander. The disastrous event baffled all such precautions.

"Captain Tuckey, Lieutenant Hawkey, Mr. Eyre (the purser), and ten of the Congo's crew, Professor Smith, Mr. Cranch, Mr. Tudor, and Mr. Galwey, in all eighteen persons, died in the short space of less than three months which they remained in the river, or within a few days after leaving the river. Fourteen of the above-mentioned were of the party of thirty who set out on the land-journey beyond the cataracts; the other four were attacked on board the Congo; two died in the passage out, and the serjeant of marines at the hospital at Bahia, making the total number of deaths amount to twenty-one.

"This great mortality is the more extraordinary, as it appears from Captain Tuckey's journal that nothing could be finer than the climate, the thermometer never descending lower than 60° of Fahrenheit during the night, and seldom exceeding 76° in the day time; the atmosphere remarkably dry; scarcely a shower falling during the whole of the journey; and the sun sometimes for three or four days not shewing himself sufficiently clear to enable them to get an observation.

"It appears indeed from the report of Mr. Mc Kerrow, the assistant surgeon of the Congo, that though the greater number were carried off by a most violent fever of the remittant type, some of them appeared to have no other ailment than that which had been caused by extreme fatigue, and actually to have died from exhaustion. The greater number however of the whole crew caught the fever, and some of them died of it who had been left on board the Congo below the cataracts; "but these," as he observes, "were permitted to go on shore on liberty, where the day was passed in running about the country from one village to another, and during the night lying in huts or the open air; and though the dews were scarcely sensible at this season, the fall of the thermometer was very considerable, say 15° or 20° below that of the day. Spirituous liquors were not to be obtained, but excesses of another kind were freely indulged in, to which they were at all times prompted by the native blacks, who were always ready to give up their sisters, daughters, or even their wives, for the hope only of getting in return a small quantity of spirits." Perhaps too, the river-water may have had its baneful effects, mixed as it is with foreign matter arising from the perpetual decomposition of animal and vegetable substances, by the dead carcases of alligators, hippopotami, lizards, &c. and by the decayed mangroves which for fifty miles occupy the alluvial banks of the river, and which, after their disappearance, are covered with the Cyperus papyrus of the height of twelve feet. Beyond these the Congo was moored, where the river was closed in by lofty hills, and over these woody shores the sea-breezes had to pass. Mr. Mc Kerrow seems to think,

think, however, that fatigue and exposure to the sun, together with considerable atmospherical vicissitudes, were the principal exciting causes of the disease which attacked the marching party, and probably those also left in the lower part of the river.'

The symptoms and progress of the disease are circumstantially and perspicuously related by Mr. Mc Kerrow, in the pages succeeding the above extract.

A few sketches of the professional and literary lives of the gentlemen engaged in this unfortunate enterprize confer additional interest on a volume, which commemorates their fall in a cause pursued by them with a zeal deserving of a far different result.

From this portion we learn that James Kingston Tuckey was the youngest son of a gentleman residing at Greenhill, near Mallow, in the county of Cork. He was born in August, 1776, and, his parents dying during his infancy, was brought up under the care of his maternal grand-mother. A spirit of adventure was predominant in him from early years, and a consequent inclination for the sea-service: he engaged in it at first during a period of peace, but, on the opening of the revolutionary war, he was received on board the *Suffolk*; was present at the capture of Trincomallee from the Dutch, where he was slightly wounded; assisted at the surrender of Amboyna; and, in the humane purpose of attempting to rescue some Dutch from the vengeance of the native chiefs, the bursting of a musket broke his right arm, of which he never recovered the complete use. Having no surgeon at hand, he set it himself in a truly sailor-like fashion, as he expressed it; that is, so badly that a surgeon was obliged to break it again. Rear Admiral Rainier appointed him a lieutenant before the usual time, for his services in quelling a mutiny at Ceylon in 1798, and he was subsequently engaged in some severe actions in the same seas. In the following year, he was employed in the Red Sea, during the occupation of Egypt by the French; where it is supposed that his constitution suffered severely from exposure to intense heat. The following brief extract will sufficiently account for his sufferings:

"He writes from Bombay, "It may surprise you to hear me complain of heat, after six years broiling between the tropics; but the hottest day I ever felt, either in the East or the West Indies, was winter to the coolest one we had in the Red Sea. The whole coast of 'Araby the Blest,' from Babelmandeb to Suez, for forty miles inland, is an arid sand, producing not a single blade of grass, nor affording one drop of fresh water; that which we drank for nine months, on being analyzed, was found to con-

tain a very considerable portion of sea salt. In the Red Sea the thermometer at midnight was never lower than 94°, at sunrise 104°, and at noon 112°. In India the medium is 82°, the highest 94°."

A serious complaint in the liver rendered a return to his native country indispensable: but no sooner was his health in some measure recruited, than he anxiously applied for employment, and obtained it in 1802; when he served in an expedition, of which the object was to form another settlement in New South Wales. He returned to England in 1804, strongly recommended to the Admiralty and to Sir Joseph Banks, and published a narrative of his voyage; but all such testimonies were rendered abortive by his capture in the *Calcutta*, of 50 guns, Capt. Woodriff, in the following year, after an action which, although unfortunate, was esteemed as it merited by the court-martial assembled in consequence. A heavy captivity of nine long years succeeded, continuing without hope of exchange to the termination of the war. He married in 1806 a fellow-prisoner, Miss Stuart, daughter of an officer in the East-India Company's service. She was permitted to come to England in 1810, in order to attend to her husband's domestic affairs, and was landed on her return at Morlaix: but, after a detention there of six weeks, she was sent back again to England, without being allowed to re-join her husband at Verdun. On the advance of the allies into France in 1814, he was visited with an affecting domestic calamity:

"Mr. Tuckey, with his two little boys, was obliged to travel, in the most inclement weather he ever experienced, to Blois. His youngest son was taken ill on the journey, and fell a victim to fatigue and sickness. "I had, indeed," says the father, "a hard trial with my little boy, for after attending him day and night for three weeks, (he had no mother, no servant, no friend but me to watch over him,) I received his last breath, and then had not only to direct his interment, but also to follow him to the grave, and recommend his innocent soul to his God; this was indeed a severe trial, but it was a *duty*, and I did not shrink from it."

The prosecution of his professional studies occupied the intervals of sickness, with which he was severely visited, during his captivity, and on his return he published some of the results of them in a work intitled "Maritime Geography and Statistics;" which is described by the editor to be a work of useful reference, and of much general information. Mr. Tuckey was promoted to the rank of Commander soon after his liberation at the peace, and with many others offered his services to Government, when the scheme of an expedition to the Zaire became publicly known; and his claims were allowed in preference to those of other candidates.

Lieutenant

Lieutenant Hawkey was likewise an officer whose prospects had been blasted by a similar captivity of eleven years, cutting him off from all active pursuit and professional advancement in the prime of life; and the knowlege which Capt. Tuckey had acquired of him in France led to his selection of him as a sharer in the enterprize which terminated fatally to them both.

Professor Chetien Smith was born at Drammen in Norway in 1785, educated at Kongsberg, and completed his studies in the University of Copenhagen, where he acquired his taste for botany under Professor Hornemann; in company with whom he had made a botanical tour in his native mountains in 1807. On another occasion, when employed in similar researches by a literary society of his own country, he assembled the scattered peasanty of some of the high and secluded vallies, and explained to them the valuable properties of their native lichens; instructing them how to convert these mosses into bread that was pleasant to the taste and wholesome, and to discard that miserable resource of bark-bread which afforded little nourishment, and was highly prejudicial to health. He was afterward seated in the professor's chair at Christiania, and in pursuit of his favourite science traversed the most mountainous districts of our island and of Ireland, returning to London in the year 1814. Thence he sailed with Baron Von Buch to the Madeiras and Canary isles, and came again to this country in order to prepare his *Flora* for publication. It was at this time, at the suggestion of Sir Joseph Banks, and from a pure love of science, that he joined the expedition to the Zaire. His journal, which is preserved in this volume, was written in the Danish language, and we are now indebted to Dr. Rydberg for the translation of it. Death prevented the author from completing or revising it.

Mr. Cranch, collector of objects of natural history, was recommended by Dr. Leach of the British Museum to fill this department, having been engaged in making such collections for that repository on the coasts of Devon and Cornwall. He was a native of Kingsbridge, in the former of those counties, and was brought up to the humble occupation of a shoe-maker: but a passionate ardour for the above named science overcame the difficulties with which Fortune had obstructed his advances. It is a frequent remark that the county of Devon has produced more men who have fought their way to eminence from discouraging beginnings than any other in this kingdom. Mr. Cranch also fell a victim to this unfortunate expedition. — Mr. Tudor, comparative anatomist, met with a similar fate, not having had an opportunity

to exert himself in the department for which he was selected. — Mr. Galwey, who embarked as a volunteer, without any defined occupation, was a neighbour of Mr. Tuckey's family in Ireland, and was bred as a banker; a profession unsuitable to his disposition, which was remarkable for an enthusiastic zeal for foreign travel and for geological researches: it was this spirit which induced him to solicit leave to accompany his friend, and which eventually caused the loss of him to society.

We shall not enter into the peculiar circumstances attending the death of all these gentlemen, as varying from each other either in the symptoms or the duration of disease: but something almost unaccountable appeared in the mortality which carried them off successively, more from extreme fatigue than dangerous complaints; and yet this fatigue, however great, does not seem on the recital of it to be so very extraordinary as to account for the fatal effects attaching to such a number of persons. Mr. Fitzmaurice the master, and Mr. Hodder, his mate, escaped the fever with very slight attacks. Lockhart, the gardener, did not experience an hour's illness during the expedition, although he advanced to the farthest point: on his return he was ill, but recovered. Mr. Eyre the purser, and a large proportion of the people in subordinate employments, were included in the mortality.

We proceed now to make a brief analysis of Captain Tuckey's own narrative, passing over such earlier parts of it as detail the navigation of seas already well known, and the appearance of those objects of natural history which usually occur in such latitudes. The vessels sailed from the Thames in February 1815, and on the 30th of June we find them off Malemba point, nearly three degrees north of the Zaire. On coming to an anchor, they were visited by the *Mafook*, or king's merchant, who could imagine no other reason for their voyage than the purchase of slaves. The dresses of the party which came on board were a strange medley of European and African costume: the secretary, for instance, wore the uniform-coat of an English General over an otherwise naked body; but the portions of native dress consisted chiefly of checked or other cotton-cloth, folded round the waist, and a little apron of the skin of some animal, which is a mark of gentility. All of them were loaded with *fetiches*; which objects of adoration, and potent charms, were composed of the most heterogeneous materials; such as bits of shells, horns, stones, wood, rags, &c. Some had sculptured figures; and it is remarkable that the features represented in them were those of Egyptians rather than Negroes. On the 5th of July,

July, while Captain T. was sounding in eighteen fathoms and finding bottom, the water suddenly deepened so much that the bottom could not be reached with one hundred and fifty fathoms of line, which convinced him that he was now in the channel of the Zaire: though the current was insignificant in comparison of what had been expected: the wind being favourable, he stood up the river; the depth of water varying, when the bottom could be found, in sudden and extraordinary degrees.

The transport was so heavy a vessel in sailing, and the breezes from the sea were so light, that the ships were delayed a long time off Shark point, which runs out in a northerly direction from the southern shore of the mouth of the river. During this detention, Capt. Tuckey had several interviews with the natives; who are described as almost without exception 'sulky-looking vagabonds, dirty, swarming with lice, and scaled over with the itch, all symptoms of Portuguese *civilization*, and altogether very inferior to those of Malemba.' At length, on the 12th of July, the Captain determined to get rid of the transport. He left her, therefore, in company with the naturalists; and in his double boats, which exceeded his expectations, with a light breeze, and against the current, which did not run more than three miles in an hour, he doubled Shark point; — to him, he says, a more redoubtable promontory than the Cape of Good Hope had been to the early navigators.

'The peninsula of Cape Padron and Shark Point, which forms the south side of the estuary, has been evidently formed by the combined depositions of the sea and river, the external or sea shore being composed of quartzy sand, forming a steep beach; the internal or river side, a deposit of mud overgrown with the mangrove; and both sides of the river towards its mouth is of similar formation, intersected by numerous creeks, (apparently forming islands,) in which the water is perfectly torpid. This mangrove or alluvial tract appears to extend on both shores about seven or eight miles inland, where the elevated and primitive soil then occurs, and the outline of which is frequently caught from the river, through vistas formed by setting fire to the mangrove, or over the creeks. This mangrove tract is entirely impenetrable, the trees growing in the water, with the exception of a few spots of sandy beach. Small islands have in many places been formed by the current, and doubtless in the rainy season, when the stream is at its maximum, these islands may be entirely separated from the banks, and the entwined roots keeping the trees together, they will float down the river, and merit the name of floating islands. At this season, however, they are reduced to occasional patches of a few yards of brush-wood, or reeds, which, gliding gently

gently down the stream, convey the idea of repose rather than the rush of a mighty river.'

We must carry the party forwards with little account of them until the 5th of August, to the point at which they quitted the Congo sloop a little beyond the capital of Embomma; the Chenoo or King of which was one of the most powerful on the lower parts of the river. It was very difficult to persuade him that they came neither to trade nor to make war: but, after sundry consultations, he at last appeared satisfied. The name of Zaire was unknown, but the river was called *Moienzi énzaddi*, or the absorber of many waters; though it did not appear as yet to have received many tributary streams. A black man called Simmons, a native of the country, and of royal extraction, was here restored to his home; having been brought from England, after slavery in the West Indies, for that purpose, and having served as cook's mate during his passage. He was soon metamorphosed again into a prince, his father dressing him out in a silk coat embroidered with silver, which was worn over his own dirty banyan and trowsers: on his head, he had a black glazed hat, with an enormous grenadier feather; and a silk sash, suspending a ship's cutlass, completed his equipment. Shortly after his arrival, he begged a piece of cloth to envelope his aunt, who had been dead seven years, and was now to be buried in two months, having arrived at *a size* to make a genteel funeral: the custom of the country being to wrap the body in the cloth-money, or European cottons, perpetually adding more and more wrappers; and the bulk to be acquired being limited, among the rich, merely by the power of conveyance to the grave.

The thermometer here, it being the winter-season, seldom rose above 76° and usually fell to 60° at night, when occasionally heavy dews prevailed. Of the natural productions, we cannot now find room for a statement.

On the 5th of August, leaving the Congo sloop, Captain Tuckey took with him the lieutenant, the master, one mate, the four scientific gentlemen, and Mr. Galwey; proceeding up the river in the double boats, the transport's long boat, two gigs, and one of the punts. The description of the banks will be best conveyed by the annexed quotation:

'We found the river running between two high ridges of barren rocky hills, chiefly mica slate, with masses of quartz rising above the surface; the slate running out in points, and the rocks under water forming strong ripplings and little eddies. In some spots, where the current has been turned aside by the rocky

rocky points, the river has deposited its mud, and formed little strips of soil covered with reedy grass, and some few little spots of Indian corn. Off these places, anchorage is always found on a good clay-bottom in from four to eight fathoms, a boat's length from the grass; besides these narrow strips, we this day counted several little vallies between the hills, forming the mouths of the ravines, the largest of which is named Vinda le Zally, and extends two miles along shore. In those vallies were some corn and manioc plantations, and many palm trees. The two rocks named by the natives Sandy, or Zonda, are of slate; that named Oscar, by Maxwell, has a very large tree upon it, the other only brush-wood; they are separated by a space of about 50 yards. On the north shore, nearly opposite these rocks, is a hanging precipice, to which may be given the name of Lover's Leap, though in a sense different from that of Leucadia, this being the place of execution of the adulterous wives of the king of Bomma, and their paramours, who are precipitated from the summit into the river.

On the 8th, they found the hills more barren than lower down, and the strips of reedy grass less numerous, as also the vallies; palm trees were no longer seen, nor any kind of cultivation on the banks. On the 10th, the difficulties increased so much from the ledges of rocks and the velocity of the current, that the gentlemen foresaw they should not be able to proceed much farther in boats; and, hearing that some Madonzo men were at Noki, whose country lay far up the river, the Captain determined to pay a visit to the Chenoo, and attempt to procure guides. The party had a most fatiguing march of two hours before they reached the banza; sometimes scrambling up the sides of almost perpendicular hills, and over great masses of quartz and schistus; and occasionally descending into vallies covered with a luxuriant vegetation. At length, they arrived at the residence of the chief, who lived with much more savage magnificence, but less of European manner, than the king of Embomma. The ground was covered with the skins of lions and leopards, the treading on which by a subject even of the highest rank was a crime punished with slavery; and the Chenoo himself dressed in a red cloak, laced, had on his head an enormous cap of the white feathers of the Heron. He was not so inquisitive or suspicious as the travellers might have anticipated, but readily granted guides to the cataracts of Yellala, all beyond which seemed to be a *terra incognita* to him and his courtiers: the manners of which nobles were certainly not very highly polished, as one of them evinced by squirting a portion of brandy from his own mouth into that of a friend, who during the scramble had not obtained a fair share of the precious

precious liquor. After a difficult journey, Capt. T. and his friends regained their boats in the evening; having especially remarked the scarcity of provisions in the parts which they visited, the value of goods given in exchange for the little flesh that could be procured considerably exceeding that of a shilling for the pound weight. A Mandingo slave was brought to them on their return, who said that three moons had passed while he had been coming from his own country, where he had been taken; and that the name of it was *M'intolo*, on the banks of a river as broad as the Zaire, but so filled with rocks as not to be navigable even by canoes. On the 14th, Captain Tuckey determined to leave the boats and proceed to Yellala by land, which had been described as a cataract scarcely inferior to Niagara. Thirteen men, and the gentlemen of the expedition, composed the party: but, the former complaining of fatigue before they quite reached it, the gentlemen proceeded to view it closely by themselves, and were much disappointed on finding merely a comparative brook bubbling over a stony bed.

'The south side of the river is here a vast hill of bare rock (sienite), and the north a lower but more precipitous hill of the same substance, between which two the river has forced its course; but in the middle an island of slate still defies its power, and breaks the current into two narrow channels; that near the south side gives vent to the great mass of the river, but is obstructed by rocks above and under water, over which the torrent rushes with great fury and noise, as may easily be conceived. The channel on the north side is now nearly dry, and is composed of great masses of slate, with perpendicular fissures. The highest part of the island is 15 feet above the present level, but from the marks on it the water in the rainy season must rise 12 feet, consequently covers the whole of the breadth of the channel, with the exception of the summit of the island; and with the encreased velocity, must then produce a fall somewhat more consonant to the description of the natives. In ascending two hills, we observed the river both above and below the fall to be obstructed by rocks as far as we could see, which might be a distance of about four miles. Highly disappointed in our expectations of seeing a grand cataract, and equally vexed at finding that the progress of the boats would be stopped, we climbed back to our people, whom we reached at four o'clock totally exhausted.

'The principal idea that the fall creates is, that the quantity of water which flows over it is by no means equal to the volume of the river below it; and yet, as we know there is not at this season a single tributary stream sufficient to turn a mill, below the fall, we can hardly account for this volume, unless we suppose, as Dr. Smith suggests, the existence of subterranean communications, or caverns filled with water.'

This

This excursion was extended during the two subsequent days, but the river offered little variety, and it was very difficult to procure spring-water among the hills. Mr. Tudor was taken ill with a fever, but the complaints of the others were confined to fatigue. It was remarked that, up to this point, no tree had been seen that was large enough to make a beam for a sloop of war. No possibility appeared of obtaining any intelligence of the higher parts of the river, nor could guides be persuaded to go farther than from banza (town) to banza: but, as an agreement seemed to prevail that the south side of the river was more difficult than the north, and no traces of the Portuguese missions could be found on the latter, Capt. Tuckey determined to chuse the north bank for his future progress. In pursuance of this plan, Lieut. Hawkey and Mr. Fitzmaurice were sent with sixteen men to form a depôt of provisions at Cooloo, or the cataract; and on the 21st the Captain, with fourteen men, set out for the banza of Inga by land, sending the boats down the river to rejoin the Congo sloop. Simmons, who was engaged as interpreter, deserted on the first day; and another was procured with much difficulty, his countrymen attempting to deter him by the idea of being killed and eaten by the Bush-men, or slave-hunters. The country appeared to be, at about eight or ten miles from the river, more hilly and barren as they advanced, but of the same structure on a larger scale. On the 23d they rejoined the river at an angle in its course, and it seemed to be entirely filled with rocks for four or five miles, without a passage even for a canoe. On the noon of the same day, they reached Inga; here Captain Tuckey found it impossible to proceed if he denied any intention of trading; and consequently he described himself as the fore-runner of white men, who came to find out the wants of the natives. The people had never before seen any European, and the commodities from our part of the world were reduced to a stone-jug and some rags of clothing. On the 24th, in the evening, they again reached the river at *Mavoonda Boaya*, where they found it lined with rocks, but having a free current in the middle, from two to three hundred yards wide, and flowing about two miles in an hour. Some distinct information was here received respecting the upward course of the river; all persons agreeing that, after a passage of ten days in a canoe, they would reach a large sandy island, making two channels, one to the N. W. the other to the N. E.; that in the latter was a fall, over which canoes might be taken; and that, twenty days above this fall, the river issued in small streams from a muddy marsh or lake. According to these accounts, therefore, the Zaire becomes navigable again about

24 miles

24 miles above the cataracts of Yellala.—The country was found to decline towards the north. Captain Tuckey now returned to Inga, and thence dispatched Lieut. Hawkey with some natives to Cooloo to bring up the presents, intending to proceed up the river by canoes from Mavoonda. Mr. Cranch, who was ill, took this opportunity of returning to the Congo. —We are reluctantly compelled to omit all account of native customs, and to resume the expedition at the return of Mr. Hawkey. An excursion which was made to ascertain some reported impediments on the river, and in which the Captain suffered excessive fatigue, convinced him of the impracticability of penetrating with any number of men by land along the course of the river, as well from the nature of the country as the want of provisions; the sole subsistence of the people at that time being mattioc, either raw or roasted, and a very few green plaintains. Mr. Fitzmaurice was in consequence ordered to return with fifteen of the men to the sloop; and, with a reduced party, Captain Tuckey set out by land to *Bamba Yanzy*, where, according to all accounts, the river ceased to be obstructed.

From this time, the journal consists only of short notices, containing an account of Captain Tuckey's progress from the first to the tenth of September, on which day he commenced his return. On the 1st it was observed that the river had begun to rise: the population also increased; and on the 4th the river was seen to expand to the breadth of three miles, with a navigation nearly unimpeded. On the 6th, canoes were at length procured: but, instead of holding twenty men each, for which the bargain had been made, they would scarcely contain eight; and some of the party were accordingly obliged to march by land. On the 7th, by the neglect of the natives, one of the canoes was sunken, which contained some of the most useful and necessary articles that had been hitherto spared by the rapacity of those with whom the travellers had bargained for food or labour. On the 8th, they were deserted by their canoe-men, and obliged again to proceed on foot. At one point, they saw a reach of the river running S. S. E., from four to five miles wide, free from all rocks, and with a counter-current on the north side. At length, on the 9th, their marketable commodities being reduced to a small compass, they found it impossible to go any farther; though, according to all the information which they could obtain, no impediment would occur in the river farther up.

The few detached notices of the return, which occupied the week from the tenth to the sixteenth of September, when Captain Tuckey got on board the Congo, detail little else than

the impositions of the natives, and the successive failures of his party from sickness and fatigue. Of the melancholy fate of most of them, we have spoken at the commencement of the article; a fate singularly reserved until they had gained the comforts of attendance by their own countrymen, and until their Captain, on his return, had penned the pious ejaculation of "*Thank God for his great mercies in bringing me thus far.*"

Among the circumstances attending the end of this able officer, and amiable man, we learn that, on the day after he reached the Congo sloop, he went down for better accommodation to the Dorothy transport, which lay at a place called the Tall Trees. He arrived in a state of extreme exhaustion, but had no fever, nor pain; his pulse was small and irritable, his skin sometimes dry, but at others clammy. On the 28th of September, he fancied himself better, but evinced much irritability: on the 30th, this feeling increased, with debility and excessive depression of spirits; and he expressed his conviction that all attempts to restore energy to his frame would be ineffectual. On the 4th of October he expired, his strength gradually failing him, but without any pain or fever, and apparently the victim rather of exhaustion than disease.—The death of Lieut. Hawkey, to whose skill in the graphical art we are indebted for some excellent illustrations of the country, was of a more singular character. He continued in good health until the 3d of October, when the ship was at sea. He then complained of a lassitude about the loins, and irritability of stomach: debility, but no fever, succeeded; on the 6th, he became insensible; and he died on the 11th without a struggle, the pulse having been for some few days scarcely perceptible.—Professor Smith was taken ill before the party reached the vessels, and was sent with Captain Tuckey to the transport. He refused any thing in the way either of medicine or nutriment: his stomach had rejected bark; and, under the idea that his illness proceeded solely from debility, he persisted in taking only cold water. On the 21st of September he became delirious, and died on the following day.

The portion of this volume, which is intitled 'General Observations,' is in fact little else than a review of the work, in the way of a combined analysis of Captain Tuckey's narrative and Professor Smith's journal. A considerable share of it is in consequence useless to those who have read the preceding pages with attention; and many of the deductions formed in it are such as would naturally present themselves to the reader without this assistance. Its merit is that of presenting a digested view of the country along the Zaire, its population, natural productions, and the manners of the natives, abstracted

from

from the personal adventures of the travellers. It also professes to include some observations made by other members of the expedition, besides those to whose narratives it is appended.

The hypothesis respecting the identity of the Niger and the Zaire still remains, then, neither established nor refuted: but very considerable assistance has been afforded to all future adventurers, in informing them of the points at which they may embark on a river of apparently uninterrupted navigation. The general habits of the natives seem more likely to cause vexation than real danger. The distance at which the narrows and rapids commence appears to be about 140 miles from the mouth of the estuary of the river, and they continue for about forty miles to Inga, the width of the stream seldom exceeding from three to five hundred yards: but, beyond these mountainous regions, as we have seen, it expands frequently to the magnificent width of four or five miles. Of Captain Tuckey's own opinions relative to the geographical problem in question, it is difficult to speak with any certainty. We should say that, from the general tenor of the early part of his narrative, he was disappointed in the magnitude of the river, and was probably therefore inclined to diminish his faith in the identity of the two rivers: but, towards the conclusion of it, when he had seen the river under a very different aspect, his sentiments seem certainly to have reverted to the contrary direction. The ensuing passage will throw much light on these ideas:

'We find in Captain Tuckey's notes, after having observed the progressive rise of the river, the insertion of two words as a memorandum, "hypothesis confirmed." This hypothesis had previously been stated among the last notes of his journal, which he did not live to reduce into a regular narrative, under these words: "Extraordinary quiet rise of the river shows it to issue from some lake, which had received almost the whole of its water from the north of the line." But in a private letter written from Yellala, and brought home in the Congo, he dwells more particularly on this hypothesis; "combining," he says, "my observations with the information I have been able to collect from the natives, vague and trifling as it is, I cannot help thinking that the Zaire will be found to issue from some large lake, or chain of lakes, considerably to the northward of the line;" and he contends that, so far from the low state of the river in July and August militating against such an hypothesis, it has the contrary tendency of giving additional weight to it, "provided," he goes on to say, "the river should begin to swell in the early part of September, an event I am taught to expect, and for which I am anxiously looking out." The river did begin to swell at the precise period he had anticipated; and that circumstance corroborating the previous conclusion he had drawn,

drawn, induces him to note down in his journal, that "the hypothesis is confirmed."'

For some well exposed elucidations of the effect of the tropical rains on rivers passing through the latitudes in which the Zaire is presumed to flow, we must refer our readers to the succeeding part of the 'General Observations;' and we shall next advert to those points of natural history which we proposed to defer to another article.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Narrative of a Residence in Ireland,* during the Summer of 1814 and that of 1815. By Anne Plumptre. Illustrated with numerous Engravings of remarkable Scenery. 4to. pp. 420. 2l. 10s. Boards. Colburn. 1817.

The *Residence in France,* published by Mrs. Plumptre in 1810, is so honourably known among books of travels, especially for the completeness of her delineation of Provence, that the general reader will open this new volume with lively expectations of amusement, and will turn through its pages with a curiosity that will meet with frequent gratification. Less of novelty and stimulation is perhaps to be expected from a detailed description of a country partaking our own language and government, than from an account of a foreign land that was in a great degree forbidden to Englishmen during the period of the visit recorded: but there is also an interest of affection, which can supply the place of strangeness, and which draws us to a family-circle more willingly than to a formal table surrounded by eminent guests from abroad. All the little varieties, which distinguish Irish manners from our own, have the importance of a brother's studies or a sister's dress; and, without being in the abstract very worthy of remark, they necessarily incur domestic observation so often, as to become a topic of welcome converse and a fond plaything of the memory. In order to convey the whole impression made by manners and scenery so analogous to our own, it was expedient to adopt a tea-table tone of commentary, a chit-chat style, a good-natured sort of gossip enlivened by wit and adorned with literature, but essentially at leisure to talk about little things with an unaffected warmth of solicitude. This tea-table tone is excellently assumed in the volume before us; which narrates with cheerful urbanity and picturesque circumstantiality two voyages to Dublin, a stay in that city, a journey round the county of Antrim, a visit to that of Wicklow, and a tour through Kilkenny,

Cork, the lakes of Killarney, Limerick, Cashel, and other places. Each excursion occupies a distinct section. The first part of the work, which treats of Dublin and the North, is divided into nineteen chapters; and the second, which treats of the South, consists of fifteen chapters. An appendix contains additional notes: twelve acqua-tinta plates illustrate some of the principal places; and a portrait of the author is prefixed.

Among the acquirements which distinguish this accomplished lady from other writers of her sex, is an unusual knowlege of mineralogy, and a predilection of attention for those objects which interest the geologist. We will give a few instances.

In describing the Museum at Dublin, it is observed, (p. 11.) that among other curious specimens occurred 'a pair of horns with the skeleton of the head, and some other bones of the *moose-deer*: which is the name given to an animal now only known, like the mammoth, by the remains of him occasionally discovered in digging the earth. In the Irish language he is called *vamh-alca*, or the wild ox, but the form of the horns are those of the deer, not the ox species.' Is this a mule-animal bred between the stag and the cow, and therefore extinct?

The promontory of Benmore is thus depicted:

'The basalt here is not so pure as in many other parts; it is coarse-grained, having sometimes almost the appearance of granite, and occasionally containing augite. I know not what kind of stone constitutes the base of the rocks; probably sand-stone, since that occurs both to the east and west of the promontory. Not far from it, on the western side, lie the collieries, but I did not visit them till two days after. Upon the head of the promontory, and near the brow, are two small pools of water, or lochs as they are called, connected together. From that nearest to the edge of the rock a small rill trickles down to the sea, up which the young eels, when not thicker than a small packthread, ascend to the lochs, where they remain and thrive exceedingly. This migration of the little fry, extraordinary as it may appear, up so great a height and so rapid an ascent, is a well established fact. The thing is so notorious and occurs so regularly, that against the time when they may be expected the peasantry lay haybands down along the rill to assist the tender navigators in their course. The same thing occurs at other places along the coast. A variety of heath plants grow on the tops of the rocks, and mingled with them cranberries, though not in great abundance;—they were now just beginning to turn red.'

The neighbouring collieries are still more learnedly characterized:

'The

'The veins of coal lie at some height in the steep rocks which rise above the sea, but the entrances to the shafts are on a terrace, raised but little above the beach, so that it is by a dark narrow passage hollowed within the rock and having a very rapid ascent that the veins are reached; the coals are brought down in a sort of small carts constructed on purpose, drawn by men. The rock mass in which they lie is a dull white sand-stone; in this stone are numerous impressions of vegetable bodies, the prototypes of which for the most part have never been seen in a recent state; — one of the specimens which I procured has very much the appearance of an *Euphorbia*. Above the coal in some parts is an imperfectly characterized aluminous mass, containing traces of organic bodies, possibly the detached members of zoophytes, similar to those which have produced the entrochites, trochites, and marine stars. The sand-stone, as is very commonly the case in coal-districts, contains insulated nodules of iron pyrites; and near the collieries, as is also common in coal-districts, mica is almost a principal constituent of the sand-stone. This stone also abounds with crystallizations of calcareous matter. The upper part of the coal-mines is of a slaty character, and of a very inferior quality for burning; the coal itself is not heavy, and has many characteristics of vegetable origin.'

Mrs. P. then extracts from Mr. Hamilton's "Letters on the County of Antrim" an account of an old mine which had been discovered, and of which we made some mention in our lxxxist volume, p. 218. With regard to its supposed antiquity, however, a note attached to a subsequent page of the present volume renders it probable that only eighty years had elapsed since the closure of this coal-mine, which had belonged to a Scotchman named Mac Illdowny: whence this important inference seems to follow, that the celerity of fossil-processes is as yet an unknown quantity; and although, when stones and minerals are exposed to the light, and thus deprived of their appropriate vitality, or assimilative power, they undergo chemical changes slowly, yet, in the dark and subterraneous caverns of nature, they possibly grow with much greater rapidity than those philosophers imagine who have ventured to calculate, by means of them, the antiquity of the earth. — An excellent description and spacious representation of the Giants' Causeway occur in this instructive fourteenth chapter, and are succeeded by some curious speculations on the origin of basalt. These also we shall extract:

'The laws of attraction which naturally influence the geometrical figures of those mineral solids, commonly known as crystals, appear to be exerted in a similar manner for effecting the prismatic character, for which basalt is so truly remarkable. The demonstrable formation of those bodies in the common processes of chemistry, no less than the natural appearances hereafter to

be noticed, seem eminently calculated to shew that basalt owes its characteristic figure to the influence of water. This peculiar property of the mass frequently evinces itself in the process of exsiccation, or remains dormant until acted on by the air of the atmosphere. Contrary, then, to the probable operation of volcanic fires, it would appear that the power of heat, suddenly exerted, would not be likely to effect a figure so symmetrical as the more gradual influence of water; since, admitting the prismatic figure of basalt to be truly the result of crystallization, it will be remembered that crystals are more regular the more slowly they are formed.

'It may be observed, that numerous substances, when submitted to heat, crystallize with considerable symmetry, if that power be not suddenly withdrawn; but of such, the result is not so generally and so geometrically crystalline as of those which have been acted on by a watery menstruum.

'Where basalt does not divide itself precisely after the manner of prismatic columns, or evince a tendency to that figure on a great and general scale, it often forms laminated spheroidal bodies, which, varying in their diameters, constitute, by aggregation, rocks of considerable magnitude.

'The latter circumstance, in addition to the occurrence of basaltic fragments, in which *a sphere appears to be enveloped by a polyhedral figure*, suggested the hint for an opinion which I have been led to adopt—that a *compressible laminated sphere* is the *primitive figure* of each prismatic articulation, composing a column of basalt: and that the lateral plane surfaces, as well as the corresponding concavity and convexity of the horizontal surfaces, the trihedral processes of the lateral edges, and the corresponding truncations of the superimposed joint, result from the assemblage of spheres, under the influence of gravitation, while the component particles are in a yielding state; their laminated structure being a mechanical accommodation to the filling of those interstitial spaces, which must result from an aggregation of spheres.

'These ideas may be in some degree elucidated by the annexed plate, in which the first figure exhibits a basaltic fragment from the vicinity of Belfast, where the sphere is developed by a partial decomposition of the prism; while the group shows the prevailing character of basaltic columns in general, two of the constituent prisms being detached, to shew the alternate concavity and convexity of the horizontal surfaces, with the angular processes and truncations of their edges.'

We add another very important and perhaps not insulated observation:

'Many facts are well authenticated of basalt, which on the removal of the superficial soil, or on being worked as a common stone-quarry, appeared a shapeless mass, having divided itself on the free accession of atmospheric air, into prismatic columns, from a height of many feet, to small specimens fitted for the cabinet. The latter is well instanced by Mr. Kirwan in a fragment of that basaltic rock known in Ireland under the name of *culp*, or black quarry-

quarry-stone, which amongst many others, having been brought to Dublin for use, was observed "to burst," after "it was brought there, into regular pillars; some of an hexagonal, and some of an octagonal form; and some *articulated* exactly like the pillars of the Giants' Causeway." They were "about six inches long, and one-fourth of an inch in diameter." I have further collected, without any extraordinary research, many interesting illustrations, on a small scale, of the omnipresent disposition of basalt to divide itself prismatically."

This remark opens to the geologist a new line of chemical experiment, namely, the various combination of the *coarser* substances of fossil-nature in aqueous solution. Our chemists have been too fond of using epurated, simple, and comparatively elementary substances, for their experiments; after having exhausted the ponderable acids, alkalies, and minerals, they have put together in gaseous forms the imponderable vapours formed from them: but little has hitherto been done in varying those mixtures of the grosser earths, which the torrents of nature make and deposit. At the corner of a field, it is common to find a pool, into which the surrounding ditches pour their contents: during the summer-season, these pools are often dried up; and the bottom appears covered with a shining floor of clay, which had been held suspended in the water and had gradually subsided. This clay soon begins to crack in the sunshine, and usually separates into small hexagons: probably by increased proportions of alumine, or of calcareous earth, this process might be rendered still more definite, and be brought to produce a shapely fossil, insoluble in water. The great use of darkness, particularly in favouring the rapid formation of stalactite, has not sufficiently been watched.—Farther important mineralogic observations occur at p. 168. under the head of Carlingford.

Let us, however, turn aside from the speculations of science, and attend to the more immediately and practically useful observations of political economy. The Moravian settlement at Grace-hill, in the county of Antrim, may afford valuable hints to those reformers who wish to introduce into our factories the exemplary manners of foreign nunneries. To the eye of piety, it seems possible to collect into one community the vast population requisite at our mills of manufacture, without that general licentiousness and depravity which too frequently surround the most brilliant and profitable of our commercial establishments. Why not try some such plan as that which is here detailed?

'Grace-hill is a pretty little spot formed by the Moravians in this dreary country. The approach is prepossessing, through an avenue of ash-trees nearly meeting and forming an arch over the road. Two short streets go off at an angle from the road, and run parallel to each other up to a green, round three sides of which is the principal part of the village. In their neat appearance, and the neatness of every thing about them, these people strongly resemble the Quakers. The upper end of the green is occupied by the chapel, a boys' school, and the house for the *single sisters*. They are, as the name imports, a society of unmarried women. Their number was at this time about sixty, and they were of all ages. They live all together, having lodging-rooms in common, full of small beds, like the wards of an hospital; they eat their meals together, sit and work together, and have a seat appropriated to them in the chapel. No vow is taken against marriage; but any one marrying quits the society immediately, and establishes herself with her husband in some of the houses of the village. A variety of works are carried on among them; working muslin, making lace, spinning, knitting, plain-work of every kind, fancy pin-cushions, housewives, purses, and the like, child-bed linen, &c. &c. There are manufactories of various kinds carried on in the village; as stuffs, linens, cords, and others. On one side of the green is a large shop for the sale of these articles, where are also sold groceries, earthenware, and a variety of things such as are of general and constant want among them, and they have in the village a baker, a butcher, &c. &c. of their own. Many of the things made here, particularly the works of the *single sisters*, are sent all about the country, even as far as Dublin, for sale. The green is inclosed with a paling, and trees are planted all round: within is a gravel walk for general recreation and relaxation. There are also very good schools both for girls and boys. I attended their evening service at seven o'clock; it consisted principally of singing hymns, in which the whole congregation joined; the minister besides reads parts of the Scriptures; the prayers were very short.'

The art of living in communities has not yet been sufficiently studied: its theory is nowhere brought to record; and its utility is undervalued. On the Continent, it has been the fashion to cry down monastic institutions, and military rapacity has been supplied out of the spoils of a mistaken piety: but some monasteries answered the purpose of an old man's hospital, some nunneries formed a seminary for nurses, others were excellent boarding-schools, and the most celebrated institutions of this kind were philosophic academies for the preservation of antiquarian and theological erudition. Yet these are not the only purposes to which social residence is easily applicable. The widowed, the childless, the aged, the crippled, and the lunatic, are all best accommodated by being classed together, and accumulated in separate institutions.

tutions. It may be questioned even whether a charitable establishment for single mothers, as well as single sisters, would not form the best basis of a lying-in-hospital; since more influence over the regulations might be given to the inmates than is at present usual; and contributions, from those who avail themselves of public charities, might often be called in towards the support of benevolent foundations.

A diving-bell, used for the purpose of constructing masonry under water, is described at p. 207.: it was in perpetual activity at Dublin. This curious machine, almost forgotten by philosophy, is recovering its importance in the hands of the architect.

Let it not be supposed, however, that Mrs. Plumptre is constantly attending to the deep, and never to the superficial, cares of society: on the contrary, a multiplicity of amusing anecdotes variegates the lighter dishes of her literary board. Of her general narrative, the ensuing passage may be taken as a specimen:

'On inquiry into what among the sights of Cork I had and what I had not seen, Blarney-castle was mentioned; and as I had not been there, the family said that we must make a party thither, and we went accordingly a few days after. The term *All Blarney*, for *all bounce and rhodomontade*, is so familiar in Ireland, nay, even in England, that I should have thought scarcely any one could be unacquainted with the name at least of Blarney; yet thus it is mentioned by Sir John Carr: "About four miles before we reached Cork, my *compagnon-de-voyage* pointed out to me Blarney-castle, upon a turret of which there is a stone nearly *inaccessible*, which possesses, it is said, the rare virtue of making those for ever happy *who touch it*." Indeed I believe such a *virtue* was never before or since ascribed to the celebrated *Blarney stone*. The virtue I have always heard ascribed to it is, that whoever kisses it may allow himself to run into fiction as much as he pleases, (though Fielding would perhaps say that the term *run into fiction* would be better expressed by a *monosyllable of three* letters,) — no matter, whichever term is to be used, the *virtue* of the Blarney stone is, that after kissing it, how much soever the *kisser* may indulge in fiction he is certain of being believed; and if afterwards he should plunge into the Shannon, all may be done without danger of a blush.

'To Blarney then we went. This was formerly a very strong castle, the seat of the Earls of Clancarty, but forfeited by them, with a great deal of other property, for their adherence to James the Second. It was afterwards purchased of the crown by Sir James Jefferys, in whose family it still remains, though the present possessor was at this time endeavouring to dispose of the estate. It is described in old writings as having been in Queen Elizabeth's time one of the strongest fortresses in Munster, being composed

of four large piles joined in one. Of the ancient building only one tower remains, a square of perhaps twenty or five-and-twenty feet. To this a modern building has been added as a dwelling-house; but the place has been entirely deserted for many years, and is falling miserably to decay; indeed, the more modern part seems very likely to fall before the ancient. Readers, beware! I did not find the *Blarney stone* by any means *inaccessible*, but perfectly easy of access. It is at the highest pinnacle of the old tower, with a very good winding stone staircase up to it. I ascended and kissed it; I have warned you of the consequence, and again I say, *Readers, beware!* In the house is a fine original whole-length picture of Charles the Twelfth King of Sweden, brought over by James Jefferys, Esq., son to Sir William Jefferys, the purchaser of the estate, who was envoy at the court of Sweden. This extraordinary character appears exactly such as he is described by Voltaire in his most entertaining Life of him; the countenance full of fire, but extremely wild, truly characteristic of the man. Alas! this valuable picture is suffering with every thing else from damp and neglect.

'No place has greater capabilities of being rendered one of the most enchanting spots in the world. Were the old castle fitted up, and it has walls of a thickness which Time itself would with difficulty destroy; between that and what has been added, an excellent house might be made; and such are the natural advantages of the grounds, that very little would be wanting to render them truly beautiful. There have been delightful shrubberies, which might easily be restored. The castle stands on a rock, not very high, and below are fine meadows, with an ample stream flowing through them: there is plenty of wood, and a considerable lake at a short distance from the house, which furnishes excellent trout:—in short, Nature has left little for Art to supply; and yet this charming spot is deserted, abandoned, looking wholly neglected and forlorn. Though I kissed the Blarney stone, I am not here exaggerating. The country beyond the immediate precincts of the castle is not very good; the slopes are pretty, but they are destitute of the greatest ornament to them,—wood. This place lies to the north-west of Cork.'

Of the literary ladies of Ireland, the following brief notice occurs:

'—A female pen must be allowed to advert to some names among her own sex who have distinguished themselves, foremost in which list must be placed the name of Edgeworth. Her pictures of the manners of her own country are those, indeed, of a masterly hand; and a finer piece of wit, humour, and keen satire than her *Essay on Irish Bulls*, will not often be read. As a painter of the manners of her own country too, the name of Lady Morgan must not be passed over; there are some excellent pictures of them in O'Donnel; her character of Mac Rory is inimitable. Let these names suffice to prove that native talent highly cultivated is not scarce in Ireland; that however the pretensions of

the country to having been anciently the seat of literature may be disputed, none can deny its claims to a great share of distinction in that respect in modern days.'

On the customs and manners of the native Irish we have an excellent chapter. Irish mill-stones are recommended for importation. — We have not leisure, however, to dwell on the many useful hints with which this volume teems. We should perhaps have preferred a less formal division and subdivision of the sections; which, if the matter had been thrown into the shape of letters, would naturally have ensued; and, if something of the art of abridgement and of omission were practised in a future edition, the work would gain in real value. The attempt to faithfully imitate natural conversation in print is always liable to the danger of recording superfluity, since many amusing sayings are too fugacious for the press. Hence a severer selection of communicable matter should always be made, in proportion to the permanence of the form which it is to assume. The copiousness, the loquacity, of modern authors is the prevailing fault of the age; booksellers prefer voluminous and ponderous speculations, as apothecaries prefer the prescriber of abundant medicines: but a few drops of essence retain longer and scatter wider their perfume, than larger vials of less concentrated infusion. "*Of nothing too much*" has ceased to be the proverbial maxim of London literature.

ART. III. Capt. Golownin's *Narrative of his Captivity in Japan.*

[*Article concluded from Vol.* lxxxv. *p.* 367.]

IN the account given by us, in our number for April last, of Capt. Golownin's narrative, we left him and his companions almost in the infancy of their captivity, at Chakodade, a city of Yesso, during the summer of 1811: but, in the latter part of September, they were removed to Matsmai, the principal city. The length of their detention, and the adventures which befal them in this land being of a different complexion from any which have happened in the intercourse between the Japanese and other Europeans, have brought us to a more familiar acquaintance with the character and genius of the Japanese, without causing a change of our opinion respecting them in any material particular.

In a savage state of society, men are little moved by curiosity, but generally see with apathy those things which have no relation to their immediate wants or to their amusements, and are very seldom excited by a desire of improvement. Curiosity

riosity and a thirst for knowlege, however, form a predominant feature in the character of the Japanese; and in all civilized communities it is seen that, in proportion as men are secluded from society, their wish to know what is passing abroad is increased. Many of our readers have, no doubt, experienced, or they may learn from Cowper, with what eager anxiety, when shut up in the country by winter, bad roads, and distance from the next market-town, the hour of the day is expected on which the butcher, the baker, or the newsman will arrive. The most remarkable instance of this kind of curiosity, which we remember, is that of Lieutenant John Macluer, a sea-officer who was employed by the East-India Company to survey the Pelew Isands, and was extraordinarily well qualified in his profession. Captivated by the simplicity of manners of the Pelew Islanders, by the romantic descriptions of Keate, (than which few are more calculated to call forth sensibility,) and possibly by some object yet more attractive, he determined to give up the command of his vessel to the officer next in rank, in order to marry a young Pelew woman, and to settle among that people; intending to pass with them the remainder of his days in the enjoyment of tranquil happiness. He first completed, in a masterly manner, the survey of the islands, and then put his design in execution, was landed, and the vessel departed. At the end of fifteen months, however, he embarked in a canoe with some Indians to go to Ternate, one of the Molucca Islands, as he himself stated, "to hear the news!" — The curiosity and inquisitiveness of the Japanese respecting foreigners are in like manner whetted by their self-seclusion from the rest of the world; and this feeling has been augmented with regard to the Russians by apprehensions entertained of their designs, and of their power.

It was as much an habitual amusement as a business at Matsmai, for the Governor to have his Russian prisoners brought daily before him for examination, till every question had been many times repeated and answered; and the impatience of the Russians under these interrogatories forms a diverting contrast with the mildness of the Japanese. The Captain says;

'From the 6th of October to the end of the month, we were conducted regularly every day, or every other day, to the Bunyo [the Governor], who usually detained us the greater part of the day, so that our attendants were obliged to carry our meals to the castle. The number of questions which the Bunyo asked was incalculable. If he put one interrogatory concerning any circumstance connected with our case, he asked fifty, which were unimportant, and many which were ludicrous. This so puzzled and tormented

tormented us, that we sometimes made very insolent replies. We once stated plainly, that we had rather they would put an end to our existence at once, than torture us in the way they did. Who would not have lost patience on being asked such questions as the following? When I was taken, I had ten or twelve keys of my bureau and drawers, and of the astronomical instruments belonging to the ship. The Bunyo wished to be informed of the contents of every drawer, and every box. When I pointed to my shirt, and told him that my drawers contained such things as these; he asked me how many I had? I told him, with some degree of ill-humour, that I did not know; and that it was my servant's business to keep that reckoning. Upon this he immediately inquired how many servants I had, and what were their names and ages? I lost all patience, and asked the Japanese why they teazed us with such questions, and what use such information could be to them, since neither my servants nor property were near me? The Governor then, with great mildness, observed that he hoped we were not offended by his curiosity; that he did not intend to force any answers from us, but merely questioned us like a friend. This kindness immediately calmed our irritation, and we reproached ourselves for the rude answers we had given.'

Shortly afterward, the interpreter introduced to them a young man named Teske, to whom the Bunyo wished them to teach the Russian language; because, he said, the Japanese government required all foreign papers to be translated by two interpreters. After some hesitation, they resolved to give this new interpreter instructions until the Spring, by which time they would see whether or not the Japanese were inclined to grant them their liberty. The Bunyo also wished them to enable him to draw up a statistical account of the European countries: but, to avoid being troubled with innumerable questions, they remarked that persons who, like them, had spent almost the whole of their lives at sea, could not be expected to give all the particulars which the Japanese might wish to obtain. They were then politely told that the Japanese would be perfectly satisfied with such information as the Russian officers were capable of affording them. It is added that Teske shewed extraordinary capacity even in the first lessons, had an excellent memory, and pronounced the Russian words with such facility that the gentlemen conjectured that he had previously acquired the language, and was purposely concealing his knowlege of it. He was soon able to read, and proceeded to enter in a vocabulary the words which he heard his instructors speak, spelt in the Russian alphabetic character; and he 'learned more in a day than Kumaddschero (the other interpreter) in a fortnight.'

Teske, moreover, was not contented with his own acquisitions, but carried his brother to the Russians, with a request from

from the Bunyo that he also should be taught. This occasioned sharp and angry words on both sides, and Teske left them in a violent passion.

'We expected,' (says Captain G.) 'that this affair would be followed with some disagreeable consequences, but we experienced none. Next morning Teske came to us with a very friendly air, and apologized for the angry manner in which he had expressed himself on the preceding day, and for having thus indiscreetly given us offence. He attributed his conduct to a passionate character which he inherited from nature, and prayed that we would forget what had passed, and again become friends. We, on our part, also thought it prudent to apologize, and a reconciliation was of course soon accomplished. Teske now brought his brother with him, but merely in the quality of a visitor.'

When the prisoners were conducted to their examinations, if it rained, an attendant walked by the side of each, holding an umbrella over his head. Among the interpreters employed at the examinations, were the two Japanese who had been carried off by Chwostoff; and who, after having been detained during a winter at Kamtschatka, had been sent back, and landed on an island near Yesso.

One of the most interesting acquaintances made by the Russians during their imprisonment was with a Japanese geometrician and astronomer.

'This person, named Mamia-Rinso, had been sent from the Japanese capital. The first time he came to visit us, he was accompanied by our interpreter, who informed us that he had shortly before quitted Yeddo, from whence the government, by the advice of a physician, who was skilled in the European practice, had sent us some medicines to prevent the scurvy, a disorder which is extremely frequent and dangerous in Japan. These medicines consisted of two flasks of lemon-juice, a number of lemons and oranges, and a considerable quantity of dried herbs, of very fragrant smell, and which, according to the directions of the Japanese, we sprinkled in our soup. The Bunyo, besides, took this opportunity of sending us three or four pounds of brown sugar, and a box full of red pepper in husks, boiled in sugar, of which the Japanese are very fond. But we quickly discovered that these presents were intended to persuade, or rather to force us to communicate to the Japanese geometrician our methods of taking nautical and astronomical observations. To this end he was continually making solicitations. He shewed us his instruments, which consisted of an English sector, and astrolabe, with a compass, a case of mathematical instruments, and quicksilver for forming the artificial horizon, and requested that we would shew him how the Europeans employed these things. He visited us every day, and frequently remained with us from morning until evening, during which time he gave us an account of his travels, and produced his plans and sketches of the different countries

countries he had visited. We inspected them with the greatest curiosity. The Japanese looked upon him as a very learned man. They always listened to him with the utmost attention, and wondered how he could have travelled to so many different places; he had visited all the Kurile Islands, as far as the seventeenth, Sagaleen, and even the land of Mandshuren, and had sailed through the river Amur. — He had a small still with which he made spirits from rice, and which was kept constantly going. He drank freely of the liquor himself, and shared it as readily with us, to the no little satisfaction of our sailors. He could ascertain the sun's height, from the natural or artificial horizon, with his sector, and knew how to find the latitude of a place by observing the sun's altitude at noon. In his calculations he used some tables of declination, and other helps of that kind, which he said had been translated into Japanese from a Dutch book. As we had none of our tables in our possession, we could not well decide on the accuracy of those he employed.'

Mamia-Rinso had also been a warrior, and had been wounded by the Russians when Chwostoff landed. 'He declared that, after Chwostoff's attack, the Japanese had it in contemplation to send three ships to Okotzk, in order to raze that place to the ground. We used to laugh at this boast, observing, that we were sorry the Japanese had not sent thither thirty, or even three hundred ships instead of three, as we were certain none of them would ever have got back. He, on his part, appeared offended at this observation, and asserted that the Japanese were not inferior in war to other nations. I must here remark, that this was the first Japanese who ventured, in our presence, to swagger and assume importance on account of his military skill.' — Though this man was decidedly inimical to the Russians, they conversed together on friendly terms. He maintained that the Japanese had well-founded reasons for believing that the Russian nation entertained evil designs on them; and the officers learned from Teske that he had declared to the Governor that their arrival at Japan was not accidental, but that they had been sent thither for the express purpose of acting as spies. They were not informed of all the arguments which he adduced in support of his assertion, but those that were mentioned by Teske were highly ludicrous. This interpreter assured them that Mamia-Rinso had not succeeded in altering the good opinion which the Bunyo of Matsmai had entertained of their conduct; yet his representations had produced a considerable effect in the capital (Yeddo), where not only the government but the greater part of the people were prejudiced against them.

Let us examine the evidence which Captain Golownin himself has furnished of his intention, previously to his sailing from Kamtschatka:

'I will

'I will briefly state the plan I intended to follow. I resolved to sail direct from Kamtschatka to the Strait of Nadeschda between the Islands Matua and Rashaua, and to regulate my chronometer according to their situation, in case I should find no opportunity for lunar observations. I then proposed to steer along the southern coasts of the Kurile Islands, and to commence my observations with the Island of Ketoi, which had not been seen by the Nadeschda, and so on with every island in succession until I arrived at Matsmai; next to sail between the Islands Eetooroop and Matsmai, and to explore the whole northern coasts of the latter, until I should reach La Pérouse's Straits.' — 'I resolved to hold no intercourse with the Japanese, and to sail without any flag in the neighbourhood of the Islands belonging to them, in order to avoid exciting either fear or distrust in the minds of this distrustful people.'

Here, in the outset, is plainly acknowleged the intention to examine the shores of the northern Japanese territories; and to go as it were in disguise, by carrying aloft no flag, that alarm might not be created. When with this circumstance is considered the progressive extension of the Russian dominion over all the northern Kurilian Islands, we think that Mamia-Rinso had reason to regard the coming of the Russians to their coasts as not accidental, but rather as a clandestine visit for the purpose of spying the land, to see whether it was good, and with a view to future enterprizes.

Many causes have contributed to prevent the most plain and obvious precepts of religion and morality from having, in any perceptible degree, corrected in mankind the pernicious love of dominion. In most of the European states, particularly, the religious establishments are so formed as to be subservient to the executive power; and consequently the morality of religious doctrine is rendered so flexible, that successful usurpation and conquest are sanctioned with a benediction. For more than two centuries, Christianity has been proscribed in Japan; which happened in consequence of the Europeans who visited that country being so much infected with this ambitious vice, and endeavouring to make their religion an instrument for the attainment of their interested purposes. We read that the first converts to Christianity in Japan, who were persecuted for their faith by the state, remonstrated to the following effect: "Before the coming of the Christians," said they, "there were twelve different religious sects in Japan, and the government took no offence at any one of them. It can be but of little consequence whether the number of religions is twelve or thirteen, and therefore why are we persecuted, and not like the rest allowed to choose for ourselves?" To this question the Governor replied; "Before the coming of the Christians, every Japanese regarded his own

religion without concerning himself about the religion of his neighbour or of any other man; but this new sect work continually to make proselytes, to make their own sect more powerful than all the rest."

If *The Wife of Bath's* Knight might justly say to the Queen,

"My Lady liege—
What all your sex desire is sovereignty,"

it would have been coming nearer to the whole truth if the Queen had retorted with the same compliment on the other sex: but the story did not well admit it.

The character of the Japanese is naturally far from distrustful. Formerly, they were, more than other inhabitants of the East, a maritime and commercial people: their ships were seen in almost every part of India; and their ports were open to vessels of any and every nation. In their dealings with each other, also, they are open and frank. To close the present argument, however, we acknowlege it must be admitted that, with respect to Europeans, the Japanese *are* a distrustful people; and Captain Golownin, not to be behind hand with us in candour, may grant that they have sufficient reason for being so.

In order to shew contempt for the Chinese, the Japanese have adopted particular customs merely for the sake of dissimilarity: but, in their deliberations on subjects of any moment, if the business be not of an urgent nature, their slowness of decision is equal to that of the Chinese. Their government would come to no determination on the measures to be observed with their Russian prisoners; and the imaginations of the latter dwelled on the horrors of perpetual imprisonment, or at least of never being permitted to return to their own country. Captain Golownin, therefore, on consulting with his officers and men, resolved on attempting to escape; the plan proposed being to look along the sea-coast for some vessel which they might seize, and in her convey themselves to Ochotzk, or to Kamtschatka. Before they had finally arranged their operations, a defection happened in their party. Mr. Moor, a midshipman, whose father was not a Russian, was desirous of remaining in Japan: he accordingly refused to join in their scheme; and they had the additional difficulty to encounter of keeping their resolves secret from him. The narrative thus continues:

'On the 23d of April (1812) we were conducted to the outskirts of the city to walk. Under pretence of mere curiosity, we requested the Japanese to lead us to a pagoda, which stood near the

the cemetery, and which had recently been built after a fire. We had thus an opportunity of observing the footpaths which we might pursue in the course of our flight.

'It may be here observed, that the Island of Matsmai is entirely covered with hills. The ground is no where level, except on the coast, and at short distances from the base of the mountains, which raise their summits in every direction, and are separated from each other by deep ravines. This extraordinary chain of mountains, which is high and low by turns, extends over the whole island; the midland parts of which are uninhabited. All the Kurile and Japanese villages lie along the coast.

'As we passed through the fields, we gathered wild leeks and garlick, in such great quantities, that Mr. Moor, who thought we wanted it for present use, could have no idea that we were on the eve of making our escape.

'On our return home, we felt extremely fatigued, and threw ourselves on our beds. During the twilight the sailors entered the kitchen, and carried off two knives, without being perceived. About half an hour before midnight, Simkoff and Schkajeff stole into the yard, and concealed themselves under the steps. When twelve o'clock struck, and the Sangar soldiers had gone their rounds, they began to make a hole under the fence through which we all (Mr. Moor and Alexei excepted) crept one after another. I stumbled in going out, slipped down, and struck my knee against a stake which was sunk in the ground close to the opening. The blow was extremely violent, but the pain soon diminished.

'We found ourselves on a very narrow path between the fence and the hollow, so that it was with the utmost difficulty we succeeded in gaining the high road. With hasty steps we then passed between the trees, crossed the mound, and the cemetery; and, in about half an hour, reached the foot of the first hill which we had to ascend.'

The hurt in the Captain's knee rendered this a most painful adventure to him; and more than a week passed without their being able to make themselves masters of any vessel. Generally in the day-time they concealed themselves in the woods: but they had been traced, and their progress carefully watched without its being opposed, till an opportunity offered for surrounding them in such a manner that resistance and escape were equally impossible, and they were again secured without any person being hurt. It was no doubt deemed important by the Japanese that they should be taken alive, because, if any of them were killed, this circumstance might throw obstacles in the way of negotiating afterward with the Russians. The prisoners were marched back to Matsmai. At their examination, the Banpo asked, "Did you know that, if you had succeeded in your project, I and several other officers must have answered for your escape with our lives?—Is there

there any European law by which prisoners are justified in making their escape?" They answered, "there is no written law to that effect: but, when a prisoner has not pledged his parole of honour, he is never considered as culpable in making his escape." The Bunyo then made a long speech, the substance of which was as follows:

'Had you been natives of Japan, and secretly escaped from your prison, the consequence might have been fatal to you; but as you are foreigners and ignorant of the Japanese laws, and more particularly as you did not escape with a view to injure the Japanese, but for the sake of returning to your native country, which it is natural you should prefer to every other, our good opinion of you remains unaltered.'

They were, however, now confined in a real prison; in which, though not in the same apartment, was a Japanese criminal:

'The crime which this man had committed was that, at a public bathing house, he changed his old clothes, as if by mistake, for a better suit belonging to some other individual. He was several times conveyed before a Judge, with his hands tied behind his back. At length, he received twenty-five stripes, and the same punishment was repeated after the lapse of three days. What instrument was used in the infliction of this chastisement we know not, but we distinctly heard the stripes, and the cries of the offender. He returned with his back naked and bloody to prison. The attendants spat on his shoulders and rubbed the saliva over the lacerated parts, and thus cured him. His hands were afterwards marked, to shew that he had been punished, and he was then sent to the northern Kurile Islands, in the possession of the Japanese. —

'On the same day,' continues Capt. G., 'an officer, with the criminal Judge, Matataro, and the interpreter Kumaddschero, came, by order of the Governor, to say, that we must not suppose, in consequence of the execution of the sentence on this criminal, that a similar fate awaited us; for, according to the Japanese laws, no foreigner could be condemned to suffer corporeal punishment. We looked upon this assurance as merely intended to console us; but we afterwards learnt, that a law to this effect really exists; and that the only foreigners to whom its protection does not extend, are those who attempt to induce Japanese subjects to embrace Christianity.'

A change of governors took place at Matsmai about this time. It seems that some of the most important districts of the Japanese dominions have two appointed governors, one of whom resides at court, and the other in the province or district to be governed; and they relieve each other annually. On the present occasion, as the departing Governor had treated the Russians with much kindness, it was proposed

by them to address a letter of thanks to him previously to his removal. This was done in a style which the French would call *superbe*, and translated by their friend Teske into the Japanese language. 'We observed in our letter,' says the Captain, 'that fate, in ordaining we should become the prisoners of the Japanese, had, to our good fortune, singled out the period when Arrao-Madsimano-Kami was invested with the government of Metsmai.' The Bunyo, on reading Teske's translation, laughed at this passage, and inquired whether we supposed that any other 'Japanese nobleman, in the like situation, would not have treated us with equal kindness.'

In August, the Russian ship Diana, now commanded by Captain Rikord, arrived at Kunaschier, and in moderate and proper language demanded the release of the detained Russians: but the Japanese officer at Kunaschier, from hatred to the Russians, and in the hope of provoking them to attack his garrison, sent back Rikord's messenger with the false intelligence that the Russian prisoners had all been put to death. Instead of assaulting the garrison on shore, however, Captain Rikord commenced hostilities by capturing a Japanese vessel; the crew of which, rather than be made prisoners by the Russians, threw themselves into the water and endeavoured to swim to the shore: but some were taken, and nine were drowned. From those who were captured, the Russian captain learnt that Golownin and his people were still living. Captain Rikord, however, sailed to Kamtschatka, carrying with him a Japanese named Tachatay-Kachi, a man of great distinction, who was also a rich merchant and the owner of twelve ships. When the account of this transaction was communicated to Captain Golownin, the conduct of the Kunaschier commander appeared to be regarded generally by the Japanese as spirited and meritorious, and not as deserving of censure. Of this affair we cannot judge, having the evidence only of one party.

In June, 1813, Captain Rikord returned to Kunaschier. Of six persons who had been carried away captives, Tachatay-Kachi and two more Japanese were brought back; the others, two Japanese and a Japanese Kurilian, had died. Captain Golownin states that, a few months before this arrival of Captain Rikord,

* The relations of Tachatay-Kachi, who were much concerned for his fate, inquired of a priest in Chakodade whether Kachi would ever return to his native country? This priest pretended to possess the gift of foretelling future events. He accordingly pronounced the following prophecy: "Kachi will return in the ensuing

suing summer with two of his companions, the remaining two have perished in a foreign land." — The Japanese informed us of this prediction; but we laughed, and told them that, in Europe, such a prophet would be punished for an impostor, and he doubtless was one. The Japanese, however, thought otherwise, and assured us that many of the former prophecies of this priest had been fulfilled. Captain Rikord's subsequent arrival of course inspired them with fresh confidence in the prophetic powers of their priest, and they triumphantly inquired whether we were not convinced that he possessed the gift of penetrating into futurity? They expressed no little astonishment when we declared all his successful predictions to be the effect of mere chance.'

This is an extraordinary story, both in itself and in the manner of its being related. That many have a wavering belief in supernatual communications must be obvious; and also that many have a wavering and infirm disbelief of them. We should guess the author to be of the incredulous class.

Captain Rikord was now informed that the Japanese government required from the Russian government a formal disavowal of having authorized Chwostoff's attack; and for this purpose Captain Rikord sailed immediately for Ochotzk. On the 24th of September he returned, and anchored in Edomo or Endermo harbour in Yesso. On approaching the harbour, he sent on shore a written application for a pilot, and a supply of fresh water; requesting also that his letters might be answered in the common and not in the high language, because his interpreter Kisseleff (one of the Japanese sailors) could read only the former. Provisions of every kind were immediately sent to the ship: but, as to answering his letters in the common language, the Japanese observed that, according to their laws, no person of distinction might sign official papers in the vulgar tongue. This kind of state-writing has been one of the greatest impediments to the advancement of knowlege in the East. In a similar manner, the Koreans are said to employ the Chinese characters for their printed books and for state-concerns, but to have a more convenient mode of writing in common use, with which they can with ease express the names of things. Captain Golownin remarks that every Japanese knows how to write in the common language, and it was a matter of astonishment to them to find that of four Russian sailors not one could write.

On the 28th, Captain Rikord delivered to the Japanese two letters from the Russian authorities in Siberia.

The first, which by the Bunyo's order was brought to us for translation, was an answer from Mr. Minitzky, the commandant of the Ochotzk district, to the demand of the two officers next in

rank to the Bunyo. Mr. Minitzky clearly explained that the proceedings of Chwostoff were quite unauthorized by our government, that the Emperor of Russia had always been favourably disposed towards Japan, and that he had never entertained a design to injure the subjects of that empire. He accordingly advised the Japanese to prove, by our speedy liberation, their friendly disposition towards Russia, and their readiness to terminate differences which had arisen out of their own mistakes, and the reprehensible conduct of an obscure individual. He added, that every delay on their part must be attended with injurious consequences to the Japanese commerce and fisheries; as the inhabitants of the coasts would be severely harassed by the Russian vessels in case further visits to Japan on account of this affair should be necessary.'

The language of this address was imperious, and far from conciliatory; yet the Japanese expressed themselves pleased and satisfied 'that the explanations it contained were sufficient to produce a thorough conviction that Chwostoff had acted without the sanction of the Russian government; they, therefore, congratulated us on our speedy liberation and return to our native country.'

The circumstance, however, which inclined the Bunyo and his officers to look favourably on this letter, was an intercession made in it on behalf of a Japanese named Leonsaimo, who had been in Russia, and, it was understood, had incurred the displeasure of the Japanese government. 'The elders, [members of the High Council at Jeddo,] said they, will now be convinced of their error, and will learn that the Russians are not bears and barbarians, but a humane people.'

Of the other letter, which was brought to Capt. Golownin to translate, we have this account:

'It had been written by the Civil Governor of Irkutzk, on Captain Rikord's first report, and consequently before he could have been made acquainted with the contents of the Japanese paper, which was afterwards sent on board the *Diana*. The Governor began by representing the object of our voyage, and the treacherous conduct of the Japanese at Kunashier; he then declared that Chwostoff had acted without the sanction of the Russian government, and entreated the Governor of Matsmai to grant us our immediate freedom, or to negociate on that subject with Captain Rikord, his plenipotentiary. If, however, neither of these requests could be complied with, without the consent of the Japanese government, he was requested to state when, and to what place the vessel should proceed, to obtain an answer. He mentioned the presents, consisting of a gold watch and some red cassimir, which he sent to the Governor of Matsmai, as tokens of his neighbourly friendship. He, besides, stated that Captain Rikord was the bearer of a letter of thanks, which he was directed to deliver whenever our freedom might be granted. Finally, he expressed his hope of obtaining an answer corresponding with his demand,

demand, on failure of which he should be compelled reluctantly to conclude that Japan was hostilely disposed towards Russia, and must lay before his Emperor a declaration to that effect. His Imperial Majesty would then consider himself bound to employ a force corresponding with his power, and to obtain satisfaction by an appeal to arms, though by such measures the empire of Japan might be shaken to its very foundation.'

Truly, such an address must have endangered the relapse of the elders at Jeddo into their old error!

'This letter was accompanied by translations in the Mandschur and Japanese languages; the Japanese said, however, that they had no Mandschur interpreter, and that several passages in the Japanese translation were quite unintelligible. We were, therefore, obliged to make another translation of it, a task which kept us employed for more than two days. When the translation was finished, the interpreters carried it to the Bunyo; but in a short time brought it back, for the purpose of obtaining some explanations which were deemed necessary. They praised the general tenor of the letter, and expressed their dissatisfaction at two passages only. The Japanese were astonished the letter should speak of the faithless conduct practised towards us, and describe it as an arbitrary measure of the Commandant of Kunashier, unsanctioned by the Emperor of Japan, since they had, by their communications, avowed that we were taken prisoners by order of the government. But their pride was chiefly wounded by the observation that Japan would be shaken to its foundation. They insisted on being made acquainted with the precise meaning of this sentence. I first wished to explain to them by examples what was meant by the employment of a force corresponding with a person's power. "Suppose," said I, "that I were to throw a feather at an individual with whom I was offended, I should not then use a force corresponding with my power, but if I threw a heavy stone with violence, I then should use a corresponding force. In the same manner, the two attacks made by Chwostoff in no way correspond with the power of Russia, and his two ships in comparison with our empire are not equal to a feather in my hand." In order to make them understand the phrase "shaken to its foundation," I shook Teske several times by the shoulders.

'At first the Japanese seemed offended at our entertaining so mean an opinion of the strength of their country, and asked, with haughtiness and ill-humour, how our Emperor could hope to shake Japan in that way. I replied, that the letter alluded to the people of Japan, and not the territory; and you must surely be convinced, said I, that if Russia chose to declare war against Japan, and to fit out a force, she might easily effect the destruction of your empire.'

This, however, explained away nothing, and was only a repetition of that which had most given offence: but Capt.

Golownin says that he was aware 'that the Japanese, in the course of apparently undesigned conversation, often framed their language so as to inform them of all that they wished to know. I therefore,' he adds, 'followed their example; and to set them at ease with regard to the threats which had so irritated them, observed, as it were accidentally, that the Governor of Irkutzk had written his letter before he knew any thing of the papers left behind by Chwostoff, or the wish of the Japanese government to correspond with Russia.' He also assured them that the Governor would not have so expressed himself, had he been convinced of the readiness of the Japanese to adjust past differences.

This explanation was reasonable and satisfactory; and we differ from Captain G. respecting it merely in thinking that it should have been made at the delivery of the translation, previously to the latter being read, and not in any manner *as it were accidentally*, but expressly to obviate the supposition that insult was intended.

In a day or two after the reading of the letters, the interpreters delivered to Capt. G. and his officers their swords and hats; and they were desired to wear the former, in order to be presented to the Bunyo or Governor of Matsmai, who congratulated them on their being restored to liberty.

"You have," (said the Bunyo,) "in some measure, become acquainted with the laws of our country, which prohibit us from maintaining any commerce with the people of foreign nations, and require that we should drive all foreign vessels from our coasts: explain this to your countrymen on your return home. It has been our wish whilst you remained in Japan to treat you with all possible kindness; but before you became acquainted with our customs, our behaviour may have appeared to you the very opposite of what we intended. Each nation has its peculiar customs, but good conduct will every where be esteemed as such. On your return to Russia, inform your countrymen of this likewise. I wish you all a safe voyage."

Captain Rikord's account of his negotiation, which occupies the latter part of the second volume, relates some interesting circumstances respecting the merchant Tachatay-Kachi; particularly his ready and philosophic resignation to misfortunes which were not remediable. Capt. R., having learnt from him that the Russians who had been detained were living, and in the city of Matsmai, released the vessel which he had captured, but resolved on taking Kachi to Kamtschatka. On being made acquainted with this determination, Kachi calmly said, "Well, I am ready."

'I determined also,' says Captain R., 'to take four seamen from the Japanese vessel, who might be useful in attending on Tachatay-Kachi, to whom I left the choice of the individuals: but he earnestly intreated that none of the seamen might be removed from his ship, observing that they were extremely stupid, and that he feared they would die of grief, owing to the dread they entertained of the Russians. The earnestness of his solicitations on this subject led me, in some measure, to doubt, that our comrades were really living in Matsmai, and I repeated, in a decided manner, my determination to take four of the seamen. He then begged that I would accompany him to his ship. When we went on board, he assembled the whole of his crew in the cabin; and, having seated himself cross-legged on a long cushion, which was placed on a fine mat, requested that I would take my place beside him. The sailors all knelt down before us, and he delivered a long speech, in which he stated that it would be necessary for some of them to accompany us to Russia.

'Here a very affecting scene was exhibited. A number of the seamen approached him with their heads bent downwards, and with great eagerness whispered something to him: their countenances were all bathed in tears. Even Tachatay-Kachi, who had hitherto evinced calmness and resolution, seemed now to be deeply distressed, and began to weep.'

Capt. R., however, persisted in his intention, and four men were selected. In the winter, as already mentioned, two of these Japanese sailors died; which much affected this good man, both in his health and in his spirits, and made Captain Rikord deem it expedient to hasten his return to Kunaschier. When arrived there, the two remaining Japanese seamen were commissioned to carry a message to the commandant on shore; and Tachatay-Kachi was asked whether he would be responsible for their being sent back, to which he replied in the negative; adding, "you do not know our laws."

'"Since it is so," said the Russian Captain, turning to the Japanese sailors, "tell the Governor of Kunaschier that if he prevents you from returning, and permits me to receive no information, I will carry your Natschalnic (meaning the merchant) back to Ochotzk, where some ships of war will this very year be fitted out, and armed men put on board of them, to demand the liberation of the Russian prisoners. I will wait only three days for his answer. — At these words, Tachatay-Kachi changed countenance, but said with much calmness, "Commander of the Imperial ship, thou counsellest rashly. In vain dost thou threaten to carry me to Ochotzk. My men may be detained on shore; but neither two nor yet two thousand sailors can answer for me; wherefore, I give thee previous notice that it will not be in thy power to take me to Ochotzk."'

He now declined to send any letter or other written document, but gave the messengers verbal instructions in the hearing of the Russian commander.

'He then sunk into a deep silence and prayed. Hereupon, he delivered to the sailor whom he most esteemed, his picture, to be conveyed to his wife; and his large sabre, which he called his *paternal sword*, to be presented to his only son and heir. After the whole of this solemn ceremony was finished, he stood up, and with a frank and, indeed, a very cheerful expression of countenance, asked me for some brandy to treat his sailors at parting. He drank with them, and accompanied them on deck without giving them any further charge.—We then landed them, and they proceeded, without interruption, towards the fortress.'

Captain Rikord, however, consulted with the seniors among his officers on what had passed, and they concurred in opinion that the most safe and proper step that they could take would be to restore Kachi to liberty. 'I told him,' says the Captain, 'that he might go on shore when he pleased, and I would trust to his honour for his return.—"I understand," answered he, "thou darest not return to Ochotzk without a written testimonial of the fate of thy countrymen; and, for my part, the slightest stain on my honour will be at the expence of my life." On the next day, Tachatay-Kachi went on shore; and, from that time till the final departure of the Russians, his kind offices to them did not cease. It was known afterward that Kachi had cut the central lock from the crown of his head, and had laid it in the box which contained his portrait; and that, according to the Japanese custom, he who sends his hair in this manner to his friends proposes to die an honourable death. He confessed, subsequently, that his intention was to commit suicide, after having destroyed Capt. Rikord and his next officer; not, however, in a cowardly manner, as he said, "in thy sleep. No! I would have gone more openly to work."

Captain Golownin's narrative is in a great degree a verification of former descriptions of the people of Japan. Through the whole of the intercourse here related between the Russians and the Japanese, the manners and character of the two parties, in many respects, form a striking contrast. In equanimity of mind, as well as in uniform propriety of conduct, the Japanese excel most nations; while in irritability the Russians surpass the people of most other countries. The Japanese, it may be seen, have pride and satisfaction in shewing their respect and love for justice and reason: while the Russians, and especially the *Eastern Russians*, are confident in their strength, and feel a presumption of success in their enter-

enterprises. It is curious, and *à propos* to this subject, that we find in Captain Golownin's narrative an account which he received from the interpreter Teske, of an examination, before the two Bunyos of Matsmai, of Leonsaimo, the Japanese who had returned from Russia. 'Leonsaimo characterized the Russian nation as being warlike and rapacious. The Emperor of Russia, he said, is kind and condescending: his subjects regard him as their father: his officers seek to enrich themselves by trade, and by provoking warfare with neighbouring states.' It is fair, however, to notice that Captain Golownin does not admit this drawing to be correct.

The Japanese maxims of morality are exceedingly rigid; as, for example, they hold that starving is to be preferred to stealing. At the same time, they are very open to reasonable representation, even to the changing of their judicial determinations: an instance of which occurred in the case of two Kurilians of the Northern Islands who had been employed by the Russians. When Capt. G. and his companions were retaken in their attempt to escape, nothing could be more candid and considerate than the Governor's remark: but, after that attempt, they were for a time confined in a common gaol, where, as we have related, lay a criminal imprisoned for theft. It has been humorously argued that, as there is no general rule without an exception, so an exception is necessary to prove the general rule; and a single thief, in the prison of the Japanese capital, is exactly an exception which substantiates the general honesty of that nation. — A story is mentioned of an act of treachery being practised by the natives of Japan in their early wars against the people of Yesso: but it is given on *partial*, and, as Capt. G. thought, on very *questionable* authority. — In remarking on the character of the Japanese, we should not forget their disinterested hospitality in supplying with provisions the ships of strangers, with whom they would not admit of commerce, and constantly refusing payment or return of any kind; as also their rejection of presents, and their ready liberality in making them. On the contrary side, we do not recollect to have read or heard of Europeans visiting Japan who have refused, or returned, the presents offered to them. "*Ce n'est pas leur mode*;" it seems peculiar to the Japanese.

On the article of courage, Captain Golownin takes various occasions, in the early part of his work, to speak of the people of Japan as being deficient in that quality; in which representation he differs from all former accounts, and from

parts

parts both of his own and of Captain Rikord's journal. In the conclusion of his narrative, however, he says, 'I must here offer a remark on the opinion of those who attribute our liberation and the ultimate good conduct of the Japanese to the cowardice of that people, and their dread of the vengeance of Russia: for my own part, I am persuaded that, generally speaking, they acted from feelings of humanity.'

The education of youth is in Japan one of the cares of the state. — The author relates that, during his confinement at Matsmai, he received by the Bunyo's orders a present of fresh fruit.

'This happened in August, on a day which is a great children's festival. In the evening, the male children assemble in the castle, where, in the presence of the governor and all the officers of state, they play, sing, dance, wrestle and fence with sabres. They afterwards partake of a supper, consisting of various kinds of delicacies. The interpreter assured us that, on this occasion, upwards of one thousand five hundred children were assembled in the castle: but none are admitted whose parents cannot afford to dress them well. Those who are badly dressed are, indeed, ashamed to appear in the assembly. Girls are never admitted, as the Japanese laws prohibit females from entering fortified places.'

It has been noticed that all the Japanese can read; and they take so great a delight in this amusement, that some of the soldiers on guard over the Russian prisoners were constantly thus employed: of which Captain Golownin had reason to complain, because they had the annoying custom of reading aloud, and in the monotonous manner of school-boys. The account given of Mamia-Rinso furnishes some idea of the state of mathematical knowlege in Japan. We have also seen good Japanese maps of their own territories: Captain Broughton was the bearer of one to this country; and others have been since received here. The following incident may yield some amusement, or perhaps cause some perplexity, to such of our readers as are fond of solving mathematical difficulties. Captain Golownin observes:

'I asked the Japanese academician whether he was perfectly convinced that in a right angled triangle the square of the hypothenuse is equal to the squares of the other two sides? He answered in the affirmative. I then asked how they were certain of this fact, and in reply he demonstrated it very clearly. Having drawn a figure with a pair of compasses on paper, he cut out the three squares, folded the squares of the two short sides into a number of triangles, and also cut out these triangles; then laying the several triangles on the surface of the large square, he made them exactly cover and fit it.'

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The test of ingenuity in this problem should consist in solving it with the smallest number of triangles: but the case is not reducible to one general rule; and therefore we conjecture that the Japanese geometrician took the advantage of the *Isosceles* for his demonstration.

We are of opinion that the Japanese deserve to be regarded as the founders of an excellent, though perhaps strict, discipline in the education of youth; which has produced, through all classes, respectful manners, and an habitual disposition to be temperate and just in their own desires, as well as to administer towards the convenience and happiness of others; and we think that from the Japanese it has been derived by the inhabitants of the Lieux-chieux or Loo-choo Islands, and has thence extended to the people of the small Bashu Islands, which lie farther south, nearly in the same direction. Of the Bashu islanders, Dampier says; "I could never perceive them to be angry one with another. I have admired to see twenty or thirty boats alongside our ship at a time, all quiet, and endeavouring to assist each other on occasion. If cross accidents happened, they caused no noise or disturbance. When any of us came to their houses, they would entertain us with such things as their houses or plantations would afford, and if they had no bashee [a liquor used by them] at home, they would buy of their neighbours, and sit down and drink freely with us; yet neither then nor sober could I ever see them to be out of humour."

The present state of Japanese self-seclusion is officially specified in a paper which, by order of their government, was sent with the released Russians on board of Captain Rikord's ship; and it appears not to have relaxed, except in the less rigid manner of enforcing it, from what was ordained on the first expulsion of the Christians. We give the material passages in this document, as translated:

"Twenty-two years ago, a Russian ship arrived at Matsmai, and eleven years ago another came to Nangasaki. Though the laws of our country were on both these occasions minutely explained; yet we are of opinion that we have not been clearly understood on your part, owing to the great dissimilarity between our language and writing. However, as we have now detained you, it will be easy to give you an explanation of these matters. When you return to Russia, communicate the same to the commanders at Kamtschatka and at Ochotzk."

On the foregoing sentences, Captain Golownin observes that, in fact, it was not believed or imagined by the Japanese government that the Russians, at the times in question, had misunderstood what had been stated to them: but that it was judged

judged expedient to assume an appearance of doubt, in order to furnish a plausible pretence for liberating the present prisoners without an open violation of their laws. It is a maxim in our law-books that "no fiction shall extend to work an injury, its proper operation being to prevent a mischief or to remedy an inconvenience that might result from the general rule of law. *In fictione juris, semper subsistit æquitas.*" The fictitious opinion adopted by the Japanese, being for the purpose of preventing severity, came within this rule, and should not have been censured as 'diplomatic equivocation.'

The Japanese rescript then proceeds;

'"In our country, the Christian religion is strictly prohibited, and European vessels are not suffered to enter any Japanese harbour except Nangasaki. This law has not been this year enforced at Kunaschier, because we wished to communicate with your countrymen, and orders have been issued to prevent firing against the vessel which is expected; but all that may henceforth present themselves will be driven back by cannon-balls. Bear in mind this declaration; and you cannot complain if at any future period you should experience a misfortune in consequence of your disregard of it. Among us there exists this law;—if any European, residing in Japan, should attempt to teach our people the Christian faith, he shall undergo a severe punishment; and shall not be restored to his native country. As you, however, have not attempted so to do, you will accordingly be permitted to return home. Think well on this.

'"Our countrymen wish to carry on no commerce with foreign lands; for we know no want of necessary things. Though foreigners are permitted to trade at Nangasaki, even to that harbour only those are admitted with whom we have for a long period maintained relations; and we do not trade with them for the sake of gain, but for other important objects.*—In future, therefore, it will be better to say no more about a commercial connection.'

This paper was delivered to the Russians in the beginning of October, 1813, and its contents were exactly such as might reasonably have been expected from all which had passed; that is to say, that the disavowal of the Russian government having authorized the proceedings of Chwostoff should obtain the liberation of the prisoners, and that the haughty and fierce language used in the negotiation should make the Japanese desire to avoid future communication with them.

* To procure various medicinal roots, which do not grow in Japan, and to be informed of the events passing in other nations, are two of the important objects here alluded to.'

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It is among the ordinances in the Japanese system of seclusion, that any one of them who has resided in a foreign land is consequently incapacitated from serving the state: as also, that no foreigner shall be naturalized, or become a denizen of Japan. The unfortunate Mr. Moor, who offered himself, was rejected; and the apprehension that he had incurred disgrace, by endeavouring to separate his lot from that of his companions, so overcame him that he shot himself.

We will conclude this long article with a few reflections, to which the singular condition of the Japanese nation naturally gives birth.—Japan has been regarded as the geographical counterpart of Great Britain with respect to the symmetrical harmony of the old continent, the one being situated nearly in like manner on the north-west as the other on the north-east. The difference in their latitudes is rather too great for this parallel: but, with better reason, the industrious and enterprizing spirit of the people of Japan is supposed to give them a nearer resemblance to the inhabitants of Europe than any other nation of the East. Most of the Europeans, with whom they have hitherto had intercourse, have been actuated either by an usurping or a monopolizing spirit, and have been eager to advance their own individual interest or the interests of their particular nation or sect. The intrigues of the Portuguese to keep the Spaniards from Japan, of one set of priests to keep out another, and of the Dutch for the exclusion of all Europeans except themselves, must have made the Japanese consider the natives of Europe as an extraordinarily selfish race; and probably they have hence been induced to feel little regret in abstaining from all communication with them, although they have constantly shewn high respect for European knowlege and ingenuity.

The first interest of every people is their security against foreign attempts. If it were not inconsistent with this security, the retired and comparatively innocent and uncorrupt state of society in Japan would be one of the most happy in human existence: but it appears as if it were meant, in the creation of this world, that all the parts should have such mutual dependence as to induce a necessity for connection. The consequences to be apprehended from the Japanese excluding themselves from the rest of the world, and the rest of the world from having communication with them, are that they must be kept in ignorance of many things that are known to other nations, and may thus be rendered in some degree defenceless. While other countries have been advancing in knowlege and increasing in power, *they* have now remained during more than two centuries in a stagnant state,

state, shut out from all improvement. In all warfare, a consciousness of ignorance must create apprehension, and a consciousness of superior knowlege give confidence; and these feelings, joined to the superiority of European arms, would cause a body of disciplined European troops to be an overmatch for three times the number of Japanese. This danger can be obviated only by a free communication with other empires.

As the diminished power of the Spaniards and Portuguese, and the inert state of missionary-influence in the East, are circumstances not unknown to the Japanese, they must be convinced that they have no longer reason to apprehend danger to their independence, or any renewal of attempts with that object, from those quarters; and therefore it is not merely possible, but we think that it might without much difficulty be contrived, to make the Japanese government comprehend the danger to themselves of persevering longer in their present system. An address for this purpose should advise them to open their ports, not partially to ships of this or that nation, but generally to those of every people against whom they were not in hostility; and to give encouragement for their own ships in like manner to have commerce with other countries. Such measures would obtain for Japan her proper weight among the nations of the world, and would constitute her best protection.

It might also be practicable to have such an address written in the Japanese language: but, whether it was composed in that tongue or in any other which they could translate, it would be a striking novelty to them to receive an embassy or a visit from Europeans, for a purpose to which no other motive could be assigned than a regard for general benefit. We say *general benefit*, because probity and temperance, though not in an equal degree with licentiousness, communicate themselves by example.

In answer to the question, in what manner and by whom could such a mission be sent to Japan? we would say, — With much propriety by a Sovereign Prince, or by some benevolent society: but, we think, with most probability of effect by the former. If this worthy experiment shall ever be made, it will be desirable that no commercial advantage or favour of any kind should be sought; and that no considerations of an interested nature should be allowed, even in the most distant degree, to enter into the motives for promoting such an undertaking. The commander of the ship employed should therefore be instructed not to enter, but to anchor without, the port of Nangasaki; to decline a supply

supply of provisions, or other presents; and, as soon as he could be satisfied that his dispatch was in a proper channel for being delivered, to weigh anchor and entirely depart.

ART. IV. *A Botanical Description of British Plants, in the Midland Counties*, particularly of those in the Neighbourhood of Alcester; with occasional Notes and Observations; to which is prefixed a short Introduction to the Study of Botany, and to the Knowledge of the principal Natural Orders. By T. Purton, Surgeon, Alcester. Embellished with Eight coloured Engravings, by James Sowerby, F.L.S. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 795. 1l. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

WE have occasionally stated our opinion of the advantages obviously resulting to the improvement of botanical knowlege from the publication of provincial Floras: but the plan of most of the works of this description has usually been limited to a bare enumeration of species and varieties, with their respective *habitats*; interspersed with such remarks as the observation of the author has led him to make. The Midland Flora now before us, however, is constructed on a more extensive plan, which will no doubt render it peculiarly valuable to the botanists residing in the counties to which its pages refer. Besides a short introduction to botany, of which we shall speak hereafter, the author has given an excellent view of the generic and specific characters of the plants of the midland district; and, independently of its accuracy, we believe that it is very complete: at least, such is the opinion which our own information on this subject induces us to form. In the first 23 classes, we remarked little novelty; indeed, Mr. Purton seems on the whole rather averse to the introduction of new names and new arrangements, though sanctioned by the recommendation of Mr. Brown, and of the learned and elegant author of the *Flora Britannica*. Thus he retains the names *Sison Inundatum*, *Hyacinthus non scriptus*, *Nymphæa Lutea*, *Euphrasia Odontites*, *Valantia Cruciata*, and continues to consider *Cheiranthus Cheri* as the common Wallflower. *Holcus* and *Parietaria* with him still hold their places in the class Polygamia: he declines to admit *Apargia* and *Cnicus*; and he preserves the old arrangement of *Carduus*, *Serratula*, and of the interesting tribe of *Orchis*, which Mr. Brown has so admirably elucidated.

In the class *Cryptogamia*, which is now the favourite field of the enthusiastic lovers of the science, Mr. Purton exhibits gratifying proofs of diligent and successful research; and, in this department, he has presented a catalogue incomparably

richer

richer than we had expected to receive from the district in which he resides. Of the *Pilularia Globulifera*, he observes that he found it at Coleshill-pool in Warwickshire, covering the shore to a great extent; and he then goes on to remark; 'This must be the rarest of our indigenous plants, as it is not mentioned in the Cambridge, Oxford, or Bedford Floras; nor is it noticed as a Warwickshire plant in that accurate and laborious work, Dr. Withering's Botanical Arrangement. It shews how readily it may be overlooked, as such quantities grow directly in the neighbourhood of many eminent botanists, who have been for years exploring the very spot.' (P. 520.) Two very beautiful figures of the *Riccia Glauca* are given, executed by Sowerby from drawings by Miss Purton. The specific character of this plant is as follows; 'Leaves smooth, channelled, 2-lobed, bluntish, crenate, glaucous. Capsules towards the base. Seeds pointed at each end.' (P. 573.) The following observation is added: 'Last autumn must have been particularly favourable to the production of this plant, or I should have found it before. The figures in the English Botany do not in the least resemble any of my specimens; but the description is tolerably correct.'—'The annexed figure is certainly a very accurate delineation of the plant. It grows in a circular form singly, or in patches; each lobe of the frond, in the circumference, is broad, with a scolloped edge; turning inwards. It is attached firmly to the ground by radical fibres.'

The *Agaricus Cantharellus* and *Agaricus Cantharelloides* of Mr. Sowerby are removed by Mr. Purton, and we think on good grounds, to the genus *Merulius*. He has followed the arrangement of Dr. Withering in regarding *Agaricus Conspersus* and *Agaricus Cinereus* as distinct species; and *Agaricus Ficoides* is, in compliance with the same authority, considered as distinct from *A. Flabelliformis*. 'This plant,' says the present writer, 'surely differs sufficiently from the last described, to entitle it to a place as a distinct species. I know it is considered by great authority as a variety only; but I have watched its progress, and it differs very materially; in the wet state, the former (*A. Flabel.*) becomes smooth and very much like tanned leather; the latter, on the contrary, changes to that state which gives it the appearance of a candied fig: added to this it is a much larger plant, and is also without the radiated stipes.' (P. 658.)—Two beautifully executed figures of *Peziza Crispa*, from drawings by the same ingenious relative, are inserted: but this plant has been already presented to the public in his English *Fungi* by Mr. Sowerby, to whom specimens of it were sent in 1810.—*Specific character*, 'Sessile, in clus-

tum; light-coloured without, roughish; umber-brown within, smoothish.' Mr. P. observes; 'It is invariably found growing under the epidermis of the dead branches of the aspen tree, early in the spring and late in the autumn. It may be found all the year round in the crisp state.' The *Auricularia Elegans*, or Brooch Auricularia, stands nearly in the same predicament with the preceding plant. A specimen of it was sent to Mr. Sowerby in 1810 by Mr. Purton, who was indebted for it to Miss E. Rawlins of Pophills, and it is here described in the following terms: 'Divaricates more or less from a centre, in larger or smaller segments of circles. Upper side very white, woolly or cottony, neatly bordered near the extremity, with generally one, sometimes two black lines. The under side is brownish, covered with a greyish bloom.'

The only remaining figure of the Cryptogamic tribe, with which the author has presented us, is that of *Sphæria Multiceps*. He describes it as 'flattish or conical, a somewhat spreading mass, deep brown, somewhat rugged externally; when cut laterally, very black, and the spherules appear crowded in two or three irregular tiers above each other.' This also was sent to Mr. Sowerby, who confirmed it as a new species. It is hinted by Mr. P. that the *Sphæria Subconfluens* is the same with *Mucor granulosus*. (P. 723.) The suggestion is ingenious, but, we fear, will not prove correct. We were astonished to find the author representing the *Reticularia Segetum* to be the same with the *Ergot* of the French; since the latter appears to be wholly independent of the existence of any parasitical fungus, being a morbid swelling of the substance of the seed itself: at least, we are inclined to pay great deference, on this point, to the statements of the ingenious and accurate Mr. Bauer.

Mr. Purton's observations, subjoined to many of the species, particularly of the Phænogamous plants, refer chiefly to their economical and medicinal uses: but they do not by any means contain a full account of their qualities, or the purposes to which they are applied; and, with few exceptions, they are drawn from the notes of Dr. Withering, or the valuable work of Dr. Woodville on Medical Botany. The Medical and Physical Journal of Dr. Bradley has likewise furnished the present author with the substance of some of his remarks. On the subject of the Barberry, he unites heartily with those who proscribe this plant as the bane of the farmer; and his reasons may perhaps appear to some persons rather cogent.

'It is a well-established fact,' he observes, 'that corn is much injured by growing near to this shrub; which has been sufficiently verified in this neighbourhood. About thirty years ago, a great landholder sold a very large estate within five miles of Alcester.

When he was in possession of it, the fact was notorious that the wheat never throve. At this time and for many years past, there is no land where the corn is finer and of a better quality. How is this to be accounted for? the answer is ready; there is not a barberry bush left standing where, for ages before, there was scarcely a hedge-row without one. I will mention another instance of the deleterious and destructive effects of this shrub. Mr. Silvester of Oversley, a respectable farmer, (who was well acquainted with the injury that the barberry bush produced,) immediately on his entering upon a farm at Broome, about three miles from hence, rooted up every plant; but in the second year perceiving that in one part of a field of wheat the ears were affected in a line almost through the middle of it, he traced it to the hedge-row, and there found a single shoot that had sprung from a root which had been overlooked.' (P. 180.)

In explanation of these facts, we have only to state that the farmer, who could thus industriously exterminate what he conceived to be a noxious vegetable, must of necessity have been a very assiduous and probably an intelligent cultivator; — one who is the most likely to draw rich returns from his ground. On the other hand, the circumstance of Mr. Silvester's wheat having been injured in a straight line passing through the field from the supposed deleterious plant, and not (as might have been expected) all around its immediate vicinity, would alone lead us to ascribe the partial failure of the crop to some other cause than the little neglected sprig of barberry. On the whole, we confess ourselves still somewhat sceptical respecting the baneful effects of this beautiful and interesting shrub.

Of *Echium Vulgare*, the common Viper's Bugloss, the author remarks: 'This is a beautiful shewy plant. Bees are fond of the flowers, but their wings are often torn by its strong bristly hairs.' (P. 110.)

Under *Viola Odorata*, we are informed that the syrup of violets, which is prepared from this species, is drawn from it in very large quantities at Stratford-upon-Avon. 'I have made,' Mr. P. adds, 'from twenty to thirty gallons annually, for the use of the druggists. The syrup made by me was prepared from the petals of the wild and not the cultivated violet. The flowers are gathered by women and children, and the petals are carefully picked from the calyx before they are offered for sale.' (P. 416.)

A singular circumstance is mentioned respecting the seeds of the *Sisymbrium Sophia*, Flix-weed, which we do not recollect to have before seen: the author states, but without pledging himself for the accuracy of the assertion, that, if gunpowder be mixed with one tenth part of these seeds, the force of its explosion will be augmented. (P. 308.)

Of

Of the introduction to Botany, of which such formal mention is made in the title of the work, we regret to be constrained to remark that it is very inadequate to the purpose of instructing any beginner. It consists almost entirely of copious quotations from Professor Martyn's Botany, which are indeed of themselves excellent, but wholly out of place in the present volumes; since the young student of botany must be well versed in a knowlege of the anatomy of the flower, and of the forms of the leaf, before he can make any successful attempt to understand the generic and specific characters of plants. Indeed, it is not possible, in the compass of the few pages dedicated by the present author to the purpose of elementary instruction, that any truly useful lessons can be conveyed.

It seems that the comfort of this well-informed botanist is brought into some peril, by the plan which has been adopted by Linné and all his followers, of numbering the orders as they stand, and not according to the number of pistils which forms the respective distinguishing character of each. On the same principle, he would willingly institute a new class, to be named *Endecandria*; in order that *Dodecandria* might become the 12th in succession. — To remove the uneasiness of an individual, for whose botanical acquirements we entertain respect, we earnestly recommend him to pay no attention whatever to the numbering of the orders, but to regard their names only. For example, instead of saying that *Butomus* is in the 3d order of the 9th class, he might say that it belongs to the class *Enneandria*, order *Hexagynia*; thus steering clear of all ambiguity.

At the conclusion of the work, Mr. P. has added the result of a botanical excursion into Monmouthshire. The number of plants which he exhibits from this quarter is but small; and he remarks that he is induced to lay them before his readers chiefly for the purpose of shewing that the soil, situation, and mountains, of the greatest part of Monmouthshire, are so similar to those of the more interior counties, that the botanist must not be disappointed if he should not find many plants that are strangers to the midland-district. We are inclined to think, however, that a longer residence in that county would have enabled Mr. P. to enrich his collection with several plants that are not now included in these volumes.

We cannot take leave of this publication without recommending it strongly to our botanical readers. The coloured engravings which it contains are excellent: but of them it is sufficient praise to say that they come from the hand of Mr.

Sowerby, to whose delineations the science of botany in this country owes so many obligations. We must be permitted also to allot the due meed of praise to the typographical part of the work, which does much credit to the press of Stratford-upon-Avon.

Art. V. *Old Church of England Principles opposed to the "New Lights;"* in a Series of plain, doctrinal, and practical Sermons, on the First Lesson in the Morning-Service of the different Sundays and great Festivals throughout the Year: shewing the Connection between the Old and New Testaments; and explaining the Histories, Characters, Types, and Prophecies of the former, by the Events, Personages, Realities, and Fulfilments of the latter. With a Preface. In Three Volumes. Vol. I. By the Rev. R. Warner, Rector of Great Chalfield, Wilts; Vicar of Norton St. Philip's, Somerset; and late Curate for twenty-two Years of St. James's Parish, Bath. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

THE principles, talents, and activity of Mr. Warner are no strangers to us, or to our readers. In the preface to the volume now before us, he observes that 'one of the most obvious and important advantages of the public service of the Church of England is, the opportunity which it affords to the members of that church, of their becoming well versed in the Holy Scriptures. By directing that a chapter of the Old, and another of the New Testament, should be read in the morning and evening service *on every day throughout the year*, independently of the portions from the New Testament in the Gospels and Epistles for the Sundays, &c., the Rubric makes provision for the reading of nearly the whole of the Bible in the course of that period.' He adds; 'For such means of their being conversant with "the words of eternal life" the members of the establishment cannot be too thankful; and their gratitude should be increased by the reflection, that in no Christian connection, except the *Apostolic Church of England*, is this advantage held out to so great an extent to the poor and illiterate,' &c. The worthy author, however, does not seem to have considered, when he was passing this panegyric on the '*Apostolic Church of England*,' that the peculiar and exclusive advantage, for which he has so highly extolled her ordinances, cannot be enjoyed in the present state of society by any one class of the community, and least of all by that class of 'the poor and illiterate,' for whom it is more requisite than for any other part of the population: since it is clear that the poor and illiterate, in order to obtain this knowlege, for which Mr. W. says that they 'cannot be too

too thankful,' must frequent the consecrated walls of the church 'on every day throughout the year.' — If we suppose the whole mass of the poor to feel this ardour of devotion, how could they indulge it without foregoing those daily toils to which they are indebted for their daily bread? Thus this diurnal intercourse with the devotional services of our church would soon terminate either in covering the land with the haggard forms of famished piety, or at least in making an indefinite addition to the sum of its pauperism, which is at present quite as much as this Christian country can sustain.

Let us, however, imagine for a moment that the poor and illiterate could attend the morning and evening service '*on every day throughout the year*,' without any inconvenience either to themselves or to the community, still they would find it impossible to accomplish the unceasing round of religious exercises in the sanctuary of the venerable establishment; because in countless instances the doors of the church are opened only on a Sunday; and on that day not always both in the morning and the evening. What, then, is the effect of the opportunity, which Mr. Warner compliments the church for affording to its members, 'of becoming well versed in the Holy Scriptures'; and why should the members of that church be required to feel such an accumulated debt of gratitude, for a benefit which it is not only morally but physically impossible that they should enjoy?

Mr. Warner may tell us that 'the Rubric *makes provision* for the reading of nearly the whole of the Bible' in the course of the year: but this provision is of nearly the same avail towards furnishing spiritual sustenance to the members of the church, as the comfortable inscription of "*Eat and be filled*," over an empty cupboard, would be towards removing the hunger of a starving family. The Church of England may, for aught that we know to the contrary, be as pure in its doctrines and as pious in its ministrations as any other ecclesiastical community: but we do not wish to see the '*Apostolic Church of England*,' any more than the *Apostolic Church of Rome*, (and one is certainly as *apostolic* as the other,) commended for ideal benefits and imaginary perfections. No exaggerated praise ever honours the author or elevates the object: and of what value is that panegyric which will not bear to be held up to the mirror of reality and truth?

The principal design of the present work, according to the author's own account of it, is to shew the connection between the Old Testament and the New.

'The links,' says Mr. Warner, p. 5., 'which connect the two covenants together, are innumerable; and the more both are studied, the more apparent will be their intimate relation to, and their essential dependence upon, each other; but it is evident that, in order to *trace this connection*, in all its parts, more thought and sagacity, more study and leisure are requisite, than the ignorant mind possesses, or the poor man can command. The answer, therefore, which the Ethiopian chamberlain returned to Philip's question, "Understandest thou what thou readest? How can I, unless some man shall guide me?" will apply to many who live under the Christian dispensation, as far as it refers to the obscurities or at least to the latent beauties of the Old Testament; and the interpreter's aid will still be desirable to explain what would not otherwise be understood; or to point out what would be otherwise overlooked by the ignorant, who have not ability, or the busy, who have not time to study and search and compare for themselves. Hence appears, I apprehend, the *immense utility and importance of a* LEARNED, REGULAR PRIESTHOOD; whose *appropriate academical education* shall have *qualified* them to understand and taste, themselves, and to unfold to others, the more recondite excellences of the Holy Scriptures; to illustrate what is obscure, to unravel what is apparently perplexed; to explain what is not familiar; and, *by comparing the types and prophecies and adumbrations of the Old Testament, with the facts and fulfilments, and events of the New one, to shew to the uninformed the harmony, congruity, and unity of the several parts of the word of God;* thus guarding the popular mind against the false interpretations of enthusiasm; the wild perversions of fanaticism; and the iniquitous artifices of wilful deluders, who would designedly "blind the eyes of the people," that they may "thereout suck no small advantage."

'The following series of sermons was written with the desire and intention of aiding this worthy purpose; and as the aspect of the religious state of the country renders the slightest assistance to the cause of rational Christianity, practical piety, and good *old church principles* of high importance, it is hoped that even this humble endeavour may not be without its advantage. The sermons are fifty-seven in number, the texts of which are taken from the first lessons in the morning service of the different Sundays and great festivals throughout the year.—As it is one great object of the author to shew the intimate connection between the Old and New Testament, he has paid attention throughout, to the types and prophecies contained in the several chapters, and pointed out their completion as recorded in the evangelical history; and where doctrines or precepts occurred, he has brought forwards their more luminous developement or their more express enunciation in the words of Jesus Christ and his holy apostles.'

As Mr. Warner is one of that learned and regular priesthood, of whose immense utility and importance he appears, at present, to have such clear apprehensions, we hope that he will excuse us if we presume to doubt whether his *typical* appli-

application of the events, ceremonies, and characters of the Old Testament, to the elucidation of the New, and particularly of their reference to 'Jesus Christ the Saviour, and *what he had done and suffered for lost mankind,*' be any thing more than gratuitous assumption and fanciful assimilation. The habit of *accommodating* the expressions of the Old Testament to the events of the New, and of making the diversified circumstances and transactions of the first an allegorical or prophetic representation of the last, began in a very early period of the church; and it was particularly adopted by the Christians in their controversies with the Jews. This practice gave rise to the most forced constructions of Scripture. The grammatical sense was entirely lost in the search for imaginary and figurative applications: the literal meaning was considered as the most remote and improbable; and the most remote and improbable as the most correct and strict. The history of the times which most cogently supported the *literal* interpretation of any *supposed* allegory, or prophecy, was rejected with contempt; and the visionary commentators, lifted up on the wings of imagination, left plain matter of fact, historical truth, sober criticism, and common sense far behind and below them.

This conjectural mode of interpreting Scripture, though it was carried to its greatest extent by Origen, appears to have been practised long before his time, and to be even contemporary with the age of the Apostles. In the epistle of Barnabas, which is found in Cotelerius's edition of the Apostlic Fathers, we have several instances of fanciful interpretation: of which we will produce one. The author, after having cited a passage from Leviticus, xx. v. 24., in which the land of Canaan is promised to the Israelites, and called *a land flowing with milk and honey,* tells us very gravely that this "land flowing with milk and honey" means faith in Christ; and he pursues this suppositious sense into a tedious prolixity of explanation, when, delighted with the amplitude of his theological discoveries, he exclaims with no ordinary self-complacency, "Blessed is the Lord who has enabled me to understand his secret mysteries; ὁ σοφιαν και νουν θεμενος εν ἡμιν των κρυφιων ἀυτου." — Origen, and most of the fathers of the church, ascribed a recondite and mystical sense to the words of Scripture; and, in some of their explanations, scriptural passages, which are very simple and clear when literally taken, are made to bear the most whimsical and improbable interpretations. Indeed, Origen appears to have thought that scarcely a dot or a tittle of the law or the prophets existed that was not inveloped in a tissue of mystery.

In his fourth homily on Genesis, this commentator explains a part of the eighteenth chapter, in which three men came to Abraham as he was sitting at the door of his tent. The father of the faithful directs Sarah to "make ready three measures of fine meal," to "knead it, and make cakes upon the hearth;" "And Abraham ran unto the herd and fetched a calf, tender and good, and gave it unto a young man, and he hasted to dress it. And he took butter and milk, and the calf which he had dressed, and set it before them, and he stood by them under the tree and they did eat." Now here is a plain matter-of-fact narrative of eastern hospitality: but, in the commentary of Origen, it teems with abstruse and recondite truth. "The whole transaction," says he, "is mystical. It is full of sacraments. *A calf is set before them.* Lo another sacrament. The calf itself is not hard, but *tender and good.* And what is so tender and good as he is who for our sake humbled himself even to death, and laid down his life for his friends?" The *fatted calf*, also, does not escape the notice of this learned pillar of the church, with which the fond father in the parable celebrates the recovery of his lost son; and in the verse which says "*And he stood by them under the tree,*" Origen appears to have discerned some profound mystery which was fit only to be revealed to "*circumcised ears.*" — Such are the absurdities into which even learned men are not the least likely to rush, when they indulge in fanciful expositions of Scripture, and abandon the sober duty of the grammarian to riot in the rhapsodies of the visionary.

The real sense of Scripture can be but one; and that one must be the grammatical and literal, or that which naturally arises out of the plain sense of the words, combined with the idiom of thinking in the country. When we have elicited this sense, we may, if we please, accommodate it to other purposes: but, when we do this, we should not forget that the accommodation does not inherently or essentially belong to the Scripture, but originates in the wisdom or the folly, the sagacity or the imagination, of the commentator. Moreover, if we begin to typify Scripture, where are we to stop? If one character or action may serve as a type, it will require but a small share of ingenuity to make types without end. Who can limit the multiplication of affinities or resemblances? particularly when we once suffer the process to be conducted in the *kaleidoscope* of the imagination?

When Mr. Warner talks of '*the types*' and '*adumbrations of the Old Testament,*' and of their 'harmony, congruity, and unity' with the New, he will be found to be only sailing in quest

quest of delusive appearances, on the boundless sea of fortuitous interpretation. — We observe that he considers several parts of the Old Testament, such as "*Behold a virgin shall conceive,*" &c. to be prophetic of Christ, though they had not the smallest reference to him in the minds of the original authors. Many of these *supposed prophecies* were indeed accommodated to Christ: but an accommodation is not a prophecy, any more than a quotation, which is employed as an illustration, is a history. Early Christian commentators converted the Scripture into a great warehouse of types and allegories, in order to captivate the Jews on the one side and the Gentiles on the other: but, in this attempt, which produced very little moral benefit to either, they violated all the rules of sound criticism, and broke down the great land-marks between the realities of truth and the illusions of extravagance.

The *practical remarks* in Mr. Warner's sermons have our sincere approbation; and we earnestly hope that they will assist in making virtue triumph over the evil genius of a vitiating fanaticism.

ART. VI. *The History and Antiquities of the Cathedral Church of Salisbury;* illustrated with (*by*) a Series of Engravings, of Views, Elevations, Plans, and Details of that Edifice; also Etchings of the ancient Monuments and Sculpture; including biographical Anecdotes of the Bishops, and of other eminent Persons connected with the Church. By John Britton, F.S.A. pp. 114. Medium 4to. 3l. 3s. Imperial 4to. 5l. 5s. Crown folio, 8l. Super Royal folio, 11l. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

THIS beautiful and interesting work has lain by us much longer than we wished or intended: but we cannot suffer it to pass wholly unnoticed; and we are desirous of informing those, who have not already seen it, that few publications come before them which are superior to it in selection of matter, perspicuity of method, and propriety of language. Its merits, however, are not confined to these particulars, since its chief boast consists in the fidelity of its views and the beauty of its engravings. We have before felt ourselves under obligations to Mr. Britton for his exertions in illustrating the antiquities of our country, but on no occasion do we consider ourselves as more indebted to him than on the present. If our cathedrals may be truly called the architectural pride of this country, and deserve all the attention that can possibly be exerted to do justice to their merits, Mr. Britton seems to be sensible

sensible of the importance of the undertaking, and has not spared either pains or expence in producing a work that is worthy of the subject. With respect to his intentions in executing it, we shall let him speak for himself:

'In prefacing the present volume, the author wishes to explain its origin, his intentions in the execution, and his views in prosecuting subsequent portions of it. For some years past he has been in the habit of travelling to various parts of England, principally with a view of examining its antiquities. He also has had occasion to investigate and write a great deal relating to the history of these subjects. On such occasions he has often lamented the want of a complete and apposite work illustrative of our cathedrals; for these are universally acknowledged to be the most important and most interesting of our national antiquities. Whether contemplated as objects of grandeur, science, art, or history, they alike claim the attention and admiration of all persons of taste and learning; and to the architectural antiquary in particular, they are inexhaustible subjects of study and investigation. He views them with peculiar and insatiable delight; examines their construction, and their various styles of architecture; inquires into their history, epochas of enlargement and alteration; and, finally, scrutinizes their architectural details with ceaseless zeal and perseverance.

'As buildings only they amuse and delight almost every spectator; but associate them with the sublimity and benignity of the Christian religion, and with the amazing ostentation and terrorism of ancient monachism, they awaken the most active curiosity and interest. Yet, strange to say, these wonderful edifices have been hitherto much neglected by the discriminating historian and the antiquary. Each may be said to have its local guide; but this is frequently executed by some illiterate or fulsome panegyrist. The person always or generally attached to *one* church, is certainly not well qualified to appreciate its beauties and defects—its real and comparative importance. He usually acquires a common-place and technical mode of commenting on it; and too frequently continues and perseveres in old prejudices and established errors. It will be the endeavour of the present author to explain and correct such things; and to offer his criticisms with freedom, but with strict regard to liberality and candour.'

The history commences with a statement of the origin of the See; which, in the first instance, was fixed, about the year 905, at Sherbourne in Dorsetshire, and removed about 1075 to Sarum or Salisbury. It then proceeds in giving a progressive account of the Diocese and Cathedral, connected with anecdotes of the Bishops, to the present day. Next follow a minute description of the Cathedral and principal Monuments; a Chronological List of the Bishops, with their contemporary Deans, Kings, and Popes; and a List of the

Books and Prints that have been published relating to the Cathedral and its Prelates.

The plates embellishing and illustrating the volume are thirty-one in number, besides three wood-cuts, and embrace a good selection of subjects engraved in the first style of art. They consist of Views and Elevations of the principal parts of the Cathedral; and also Ground-Plans, and Sections of the Buildings; which we consider as great improvements, inasmuch as they contribute to gratify and inform the curious inquirer as well as the professed architect. In addition, we have views of the more interesting architectural ornaments of the church, and several tombs and monuments; all of which are executed in a masterly way.

To give our readers an idea of the manner of the author, and at the same time communicate some acceptable particulars of the Cathedral, we select the following paragraphs:

'The origin and the time of building Salisbury Cathedral having been already stated, it now remains for me to describe and define the peculiarities of the edifice, to point out its character as a whole, and to particularise it in detail. This church is remarkable as being the most uniform, regular, and systematic in its arrangement and architecture of any ancient cathedrals in England; and in this respect is also contradistinguished to those on the Continent: for whilst all the others consist of dissimilar, and often heterogeneous parts and styles, that of Salisbury is almost wholly of one species, and of one era of execution. It appears not only to have been constructed from one original design, but to have remained to the present day, nearly in the state it was left by its builders: at least we do not readily perceive any very discordant additions, or serious and palpable dilapidations. Hence consistency and harmony are its characteristics; and from this cause the architectural antiquary must view it with admiration, and investigate its execution with satisfaction, and even with pleasure. Independently of the style, or class of architecture, and divested of all prepossessions or prejudices in behalf of Grecian, Roman, or other classical examples, as certain edifices are called, the young architect is required to scrutinize the present cathedral, for its symmetry, magnitude, and construction. He will do well to analyze his own emotions, after first viewing this noble pile, and endeavour to ascertain the causes of amazement, admiration, or delight, as these may be jointly or separately excited by the object. It is his duty to store his mind with knowledge, to seek for useful information rather from example than from theory: and this cannot be better acquired than from an edifice that has stood the test of eight centuries, is evidently scientific in its design, and bold and original in execution. Such is the church we are now surveying: and therefore I have thought it requisite to represent its general features by perspective views, taken internally and externally; and by plans, sections, and details, to show its anatomy, or constructive arrangement, and individual forms.

'The

'The whole of this cathedral may be said to consist of six distinct and separate portions or members:—1. The body of the church:—2. The tower and spire:—3. The cloister:—4. The north porch:—5. The chapter-house:—and, 6. The chantries and monuments. Each of these has a peculiar and positive character and appropriation, and each is contradistinguished to the others by marked forms, and dissimilarity in style and ornament. The church consists internally of a nave, with two lateral ailes; a large transept, with an eastern aile branching off from the tower; a smaller transept, with an aile east of the former; a choir, with lateral ailes; a space east of the choir, and a lady chapel at the east end. On the north side of the church is a large porch, with a room over it; and rising from the intersection of the principal transept with the nave is a lofty tower and spire. South of the church is a square cloister, with a library, over half of the eastern side; a chapter-house; a consistory court; and an octangular apartment, called the muniment-room.

'Salisbury Cathedral is not only peculiar for its uniformity of style, but is also remarkable for its insulated and unencumbered state and situation: for whilst most of the other great churches of England are obscured and almost enveloped with houses, trees, and walls, that of Salisbury is detached from all extraneous and disfiguring objects, and is thus laid open to the inspection of the spectator.* It is thus rendered easy of access and of examination from several different points of view; and hence may be studied by the draftsman and architect, from such stations as best display the form and effect of the whole. From this circumstance Salisbury Cathedral is popularly regarded as the finest church in England; and from the same cause, it is certainly peculiarly imposing on the eye and imagination of the stranger. It is customary for visitors to approach it from the east; and having reached the north-east angle of the enclosed cemetery, where the whole edifice is commanded at a single glance, the effect is pleasingly sublime. Plate II. shows it from this station, where it constitutes at once a beautiful and picturesque mass. A series and succession of pediments, pinnacles, buttresses, windows, and bold projections,

* The practice of building houses and offices, and of attaching other objects to cathedrals and churches, cannot be too strongly and unequivocally reprobated. It is not merely offensive to the eye, but is incompatible with the original intent of the architects and founders, and is highly injurious to the stability of an edifice. The Abbey church of Bath, and the Temple church, London, are two glaring instances of this shameful practice; where the owners of the ground, for the paltry consideration of receiving a few annual pounds, have permitted the walls of those churches to be cut away, their windows filled up, drains made into the foundations, and the architectural features not only obscured, but partly destroyed. It is really lamentable that such nuisances should be permitted: and it is equally to be regretted that national buildings should be at the mercy and caprice of ignorance and avarice.'

crowned

crowned with the rich tower and lofty spire, are embraced at one view, and fill the eye and mind as a homogeneous whole. This northern front however is generally monotonous in effect, and to be seen to advantage should be visited when the morning sun lights up one side of the tower and the eastern sides of the transepts, as in the print here referred to; or when the summer sun is declining in the west, and throws its golden rays on the northern faces of the transepts, and tips the pinnacles and other projections with sparkling gleams of brightness. At this time also the recesses are dark and solemn, which enhance the grandeur, and augment the magnitude of the edifice. In the twilight of evening, or when the moon is about forty-five degrees above the western horizon, and displays her silvery face amidst solemn azure and fleecy vapours, then the effect is still more awful and impressive: the enthusiastic spectator is rivetted to the scene; his mind wanders in reveries of delight; and his enraptured imagination "darts from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven," in rapid and daring flights. Should the deep-toned organ sound at such a moment, and reiterate its solemn music through the ailes, the effect would be infinitely augmented.'

In order the better to qualify himself for the undertaking, Mr. Britton remained some months at Salisbury, inspecting minutely the several parts of the Cathedral, examining its archives, and collecting all possible information on the spot; a course which he intends to adopt with respect to the other cathedrals, as he proceeds to describe their antiquities.

Altogether, then, we congratulate the public on the appearance of the present volume, and trust that the author will meet with that patronage which his ingenuity in projecting it, the spirit manifested in its progress, and the ability evinced in the execution of it, so well deserve. Since our ancestors have left us such buildings as excite our wonder and admiration, surely that chronicler, or that artist, deserves every encouragement who propagates their fame, and surprizes and gratifies those who have not opportunities of actually beholding their excellences.

ART. VII. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; for the Years 1813, 1814, 1815, and 1816.* Vols. XXXI, XXXII, XXXIII, XXXIV. 8vo. 10s. 6d. each. Hunter, &c.

IT is with regret that we see an arrear of four * unnoticed volumes of the Transactions of a Society unrivalled for the munificent and honorable premiums which it awards

* Another, for the year 1817, has appeared since this article was in preparation.

to

to taste, genius, and art; to science displayed in mechanical invention; and to every discovery which tends towards the improvement of our manufactures and the extension of our trade. Idle, however, would be any apology from us for the omission, except as it conveyed an assurance that our remissness has not arisen from disrespect, or from any feeling that the latter volumes have been less intitled to attention than those which preceded them. The simple fact is that one of our coadjutors, to whom this department was confided, sustained a lingering illness which gradually incapacitated him from exertion, and which terminated only with his life. From a variety of circumstances, arrangements were not immediately made to supply the vacancy, and thus the matter rested.—The Society itself has also, within a short space of time, been deprived of two members, who occupied in it stations of great importance: the one a nobleman of the highest rank, viz. the Duke of Norfolk, who held the office of President during the long series of twenty-two years; the other, Dr. Charles Taylor, who for many years gave up all his time and his talents, with a devotedness which never relaxed, to the laborious situation of Secretary. Thus are the mandates of the tearless arbiter of human destinies alike irresistible:

"*Cùm semel occideris, et de te splendida Minos*
Fecerit arbitria,
Non, Torquate, genus, non te facundia, non te
Restituet pietas!" HOR. Car. lib. iv. Ode vii.

To the Presidency has succeeded an illustrious member of the Royal Family, the Duke of Sussex; who, as it is well observed in the preface, has thus given a public pledge that the encouragement of the Arts, Commerce, and Manufactures of the country does not misbecome the highest patronage; and who is sensible that, in personally distributing the medals and other honorary rewards allotted to merit, often in the lower walks of life, he is thus superadding to the direct encouragement of the Society the collateral, and in many cases equally satisfactory, gratification, which arises from the high rank of the personage through whose hands the reward is immediately received.

The office of Secretary, likewise, is filled by a gentleman whose extensive attainments in the sciences of Mineralogy, Geology, Chemistry, and Physics in general, eminently qualify him for the situation to which he was appointed in a manner peculiarly honorable and gratifying to his feelings; we mean Mr. Arthur Aikin.

The three former of the volumes, which are enumerated at the head of this article, have been long before the public; and,

as

as the most meagre analysis of them would occupy no inconsiderable space, and the papers themselves have by this time been generally read by those who are interested in the subjects on which they treat, we deem it, on the whole, advisable to limit our present account to the contents of the thirty-fourth volume.

Agriculture.

If, on the one hand, no station in life is too humble to claim from this excellent society the reward of useful exertions; on the other, no rank is so high as not to feel honored by receiving its premiums. The gold medal was adjudged to the Duchess of Rutland for the success of her experiments on the best methods of raising Oaks; which experiments were made on a large scale under her Grace's own immediate inspection. The result appears to be that the best method is, after having once ploughed the land, to sow the acorns in drills three feet apart, where they are intended to remain as a crop; to hoe between the rows for two years; and then to plant potatoes, one row only between each row of oaks, for the three following years. It is asserted that, in all cases, oaks will grow as much in the first four years with potatoes as in six without them. The potatoes are a *smothering* crop to all weeds, till the oaks themselves become so: but during the first two years the hoe alone must be used, because the luxuriance of the potatoe-crop would overwhelm the very young oaks. If seedlings of three years old be adopted instead of acorns, they may be planted in holes dug at four feet distance each way: one row only of potatoes to be planted, for the three following years, between each row of oaks. It is likewise recommended that oaks should be planted by themselves; for, contrary to the general opinion that a mixture of firs and other forest-trees is useful to protect and shelter the oaks in their infant-state, it is asserted that the plantations round Belvoir Castle bear unequivocal testimony that the growth of oaks is uniformly retarded, and the plants themselves rendered worse, by the contiguity of other trees. The plantations which have been made at Belvoir Castle during the last 25 years are estimated at 800 acres; and those under the immediate directions of the Duchess contain 190 acres, bearing almost 800,000 forest-trees of every description, in soils and situations best adapted to their respective natures. It is to be observed, too, of these latter plantations, that they have generally been made on land not calculated for the purposes of husbandry. — The communication on this subject comes from Mr. Matthew Pound, the Duchess's woodman.

A gold

A gold medal was also presented to William Congreve, Esq. of Aldermaston-House, Berks, for planting 447 acres with acorns: they were dibbled, one inch deep, in rows of different distances; Mr. C. preferring the distance of eight feet for the rows, and from six to twelve inches from acorn to acorn. He considers Scotch firs to be excellent nurses for the young oaks. It is to be remembered, however, that his rows are double the distance from each other that the Duchess of Rutland allows. — A gold medal was likewise awarded to Michael Meeke, Esq. of Sober, near North Allerton, for planting 134 acres with 588,763 forest-trees; and a silver medal to Bache Thornhill, Esq. of Stanton, near Bakewell, for having planted 116 acres with 315,000 forest-trees of different sorts.

Mr. Curwen is one of those gentlemen to whom agriculture is much indebted. That man is not always the best farmer who merely produces the most corn, or fattens his bullocks to the greatest perfection: but he who fattens his cattle with the least expence of food, and who raises the most corn at the least expence of tillage. Whoever expends more in producing a commodity than the commodity is worth does an injury to himself, and confers no advantage on the community; which, being composed of individuals, can never be benefited by individual injury. Yet this has often been the error of agriculturists, who, in their ambition to obtain a prize, do not pay sufficient attention to economy. Mr. Curwen has too much good sense to fall into such an error; and the adjudication of a gold medal to him was for an experiment evincing at once the *economy* and the practicability of stall-feeding very young cattle, and bringing them to a much earlier maturity than they have hitherto been known to attain. The following account of the management and weights of his calves is very striking:

'Seventeen calves were reared in the course of the last year: eleven short-horned, or Durham breed; six Ayrshire. Of those turned into the yard, which is done when they are two months old, not one has been lost, nor have they been subject to any complaint. Attention was particularly paid to them at the period of changing their food from turnips to clover. The intention of the experiment being to bottom the practice on a system which might afford a prospect of profit to the farmer, all costly food was rejected. The first month, the calves had but one gallon of new milk per day; for three months afterwards three gallons. A winter-dairy being what is aimed at, most of the calves are dropped from November till April. Turnips and hay were given with the milk, but neither cake or meal. From June till October the food was clover; afterwards, till the end of May, turnips; till Christ-

mas they had some little hay, *being well taken to the turnip*, straw was substituted.

'In size they were little inferior to those of double their age. So good was their condition, that one of the Ayrshire heifers, of eighteen months, was butchered. The live weight was fifty-five stone, of fourteen pounds to the stone. The carcass was thirty-one stone nine pounds, and the loose fat two stone nine pounds. The animal was weighed without fasting, which was equal to a tenth of its weight. The carcase was esteemed particularly beautiful, and the meat highly approved of by the members who saw it, (for it was killed at the meeting of the Workington Society). Not one of the numerous visitors who was not agreeably disappointed as to the result. The short-horned, or Durham breed, were in much greater condition, and would have killed six-and-forty stone at least. The gain on turnips was fully three pounds a day on each of the Durham heifers. I conceive there would be no difficulty in bringing up the heifers to sixty stone of carcass at two years old. They consumed on an average six stone of turnips a day; of hay they had about half a stone; when straw was given no account was taken. Besides the food I have just mentioned, they had a feed of steamed chaff; the benefit of which was solely from its warmth, in preventing the green food disagreeing with them, as it would otherwise have been cast into the dung-hill.'

The last premium in the class of Agriculture was adjudged to James G. Hall, Esq. of Mixbury near Buckingham, for protecting 1160 Merino sheep. Humanity and private interest always go hand in hand; and when looking at the houseless and half-starved cattle which are sometimes to be seen, vainly seeking shelter from a piercing north-east sleet behind some solitary thorn, every person will deplore the excessive folly as well as want of feeling which must attach to the owner. All domestic animals court warmth, shelter, and dry lodging; and without these their food is thrown away, for it will do them very little good. The small mortality which the flocks of Mr. Hall sustained is to be attributed entirely to the attention paid not only to the regularity of their feed, but to their shelter in yards well littered with straw, and fenced round with furze. The practice, which has most struck us in this paper for its singularity, is that Mr. Hall endeavours that his ewes should lamb in the month of November in preference to the spring of the year. Certainly, there is always abundance of turnips and hay in November; and very often a distressing deficiency of food in March, April, and the early part of May. We should have our fears, however, that, in spite of every artificial protection, the young lambs would be stunted in their growth by the severe winter of this northern climate. Farther information on this subject would be desirable.

Chemistry.

In this class we find a gold medal voted to Mr. George Field, of Heath Cottage, Hounslow, for his apparatus for preparing Coloured Lakes. The machine, which he calls a Physeter or Percolator, is simple in its construction, and filtrates liquids with great expedition and efficacy; whether the purpose is for purifying them from extraneous matter, or for obtaining precipitates by separating them from the liquids with which they are incorporated. An engraving is likewise given of an air-stove, being a simplification of the drying-stove for the invention of which Mr. Field had before received a premium from the Society. The circulation of air is free between the fire and the chambers of the stove, so as to produce a gentle and regulated heat: the stove may be advantageously used in private apartments.

The Society presented the gold medal and one hundred guineas to Mr. James Ryan, of Netherton-colliery, near Dudley, for his method of Ventilating Coal-Mines. The model, as a matter of course, is preserved in their repository, and several explanatory engravings are annexed to this paper, without the aid of which it must be unintelligible. The dreadful accidents and waste of life, which are perpetually occurring in collieries, could not but attract the efforts of scientific and practical men to render them less frequent; and, had he no other claim to the gratitude of his country, Sir Humphrey Davy would have deserved a statue of gold for his inestimable invention of the safety-lamp. In the year 1806, thirty-six men perished by two explosions at Mostyn-colliery in Flintshire, sixteen by an explosion at St. Helen's in Lancashire, and eleven by another in a colliery at Whitehaven. It is really incredible and disgraceful that any prejudices in favour of established courses of procedure should be strong enough to impede, if not to counteract, the humane attempts of scientific men to substitute improvements in the place of those very practices from which such frightful calamities have resulted: but so it was in this instance; and mortifying was the opposition which Mr. Ryan at first experienced, although the amplest testimonies now certify the success of his operations.

The old system of ventilating collieries consisted in forming all the passages of a mine into one immense labyrinth, connected at one end with what is technically called the *down-cast*, and at the other end with the *up-cast* shaft. This arrangement is effected by fixing up *stoppings* of brick and mortar or stones, or strong boards, in such situations as to intercept the current of air in every direction but that in which it is necessary to traverse in order to sweep, in its course, every avenue and corner

corner of the mine. Mr. Ryan says that the current of air, which enters the down-cast shaft, has thus to travel 27 miles in an area of 600 yards square! a distance through which a considerable power is required to force an effective current, and in point of fact the velocity of this current rarely exceeds two miles in an hour. Various, and ineffectual, and dangerous, have been the methods devised for removing the inflammable gas, as it is generated in the working of collieries, by the mechanical application of atmospheric air. *Blowing engines* for propelling air down the shafts have been employed: but their power is expended in sending it through such an enormous extent of passage:—also *falls of water*, carrying with them a current of air: these not only increase the labour and expence of clearing the mines from water, but render one of the shafts useless for every other purpose. *The air-pump* likewise deprives the miners of the up-cast shaft, and is insufficient to propel a full stream of air from shaft to shaft. The expedient of a *furnace* to produce a current by the rarefaction of the air is fraught with the utmost peril, and what is called the *firing-line* is still more hazardous. None of these expedients are perfectly efficacious.

In the ground-plan of Mr. Ryan's system of ventilating coal-mines, a gas-course or gas-headway incloses a given area and communicates with the up-cast shaft; in working the gas-headway through the higher parts of a mine, the under strata are bored at every twenty or thirty yards, a few feet through, in order to draw off the hydrogen gas from the lower strata: *holings* are likewise made at the lower part of the mine into the bottom of the gas-headway, through which the carbonic acid gas descends by its specific gravity into the water-level. What are called *holings*, or small gas-courses made into the main head-way, must accompany the works as they advance; and the dimensions of these apertures must be judged from the quantity and specific gravity of the gases which they are intended to receive.

'It is supposed that by the old system a standard current of air moves through an aperture of thirty feet area, at the rate of three feet per second, which equals 5400 cubic feet per minute; and that this is capable of diluting about twenty-eight and a half feet of gas per second, or one thousand seven hundred and ten feet per minute, so as to render it perfectly harmless; this however only gives three parts of air to one of gas, which, supposing the equality of their proportion, must render it an explosive mixture. But this dilution *is not* regular, nor does the gas distribute itself equally; for in some parts the hydrogen remains nearly pure, and in others diluted beyond the explosive point; but in the higher parts of a mine, a great collection may always be expected, mixed up to va-

rious points of explosion, and more particularly at the last of the air, as the accumulations of every other part of the mine must pass through it.

'By a gas-head of the same capacity, in my system, I can, according to the above rate of three feet per second, bring off ninety feet of gas in that time; but if the gas be pure, its travel or rate of going will be in proportion to its levity, and the rarefaction in the gas-headway. I reckon, therefore, upon the rate of at least ten feet per second, which would carry off 300 feet of gas each second, or eighteen thousand feet per minute: but this generation is far more than can be presumed upon in any mine, so that the extremity of security, afforded by my system, would probably never be put to the test: the distance of its course in a coal-field of nine hundred yards, will seldom exceed twelve hundred yards.'

The testimonials in favour of Mr. Ryan's system leave no doubt of its practical advantages.

The silver medal was voted to R. Clanny, M.D. of Bishop-Wearmouth, near Newcastle, for his Safety-Lamp, of which an engraving is annexed. Mr. Patterson, engineer to a colliery, attributes to Dr. C. the merit of being the first who turned the public attention to the subject of safety-lamps, the first and original constructor of them, and the first to descend into a dangerous mine and make the necessary trials in an atmosphere of fire-damp at the exploding point. The perseverance and courage of Dr. Clanny, in the experiments in which he has personally exposed himself for the sake of lessening the danger attendant on mining operations, certainly intitle him to the highest praise.

Under the head of

POLITE ARTS

we find a very simple process for preparing charcoal to answer the purpose of Black Chalk-drawing; and some of our readers will like to have the "Receipt" for which Mr. Charles Pye, of Euston-place, Euston-square, was honoured with the silver Isis medal.

'The finest grained charcoal that can be procured is sawed into slips of the size and form required, and put into a pipkin of melted bees' wax, where they are permitted to remain near a slow fire for half an hour or more, in proportion to the thickness of the charcoal; they are then taken out, and when perfectly cool, are fit for use. By adding a small quantity of rosin to the wax, they may be made considerably harder; and, on the contrary, should they be required softer, a little butter or tallow will answer the purpose. The advantages these pencils possess are, that they can be made at the most trifling expence, and at any time; and that drawings made with them are as permanent as ink, and not liable to injury by being rubbed, or remaining in the damp.

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'The above process will harden both red and black chalks, and make them permanent also.'

Several instruments for facilitating the execution of architectural drawings, and giving precision to mathematical and mechanical figures, have received the encouragement of the Society. Mr. Wm. Cubitt, of Ipswich, has constructed an ingenious instrument for Drawing Ellipses; and Mr. Charles West, of Cursitor-street, Chancery-lane, has invented an improved Parallel Rule, with double rollers, which may be shifted at pleasure, so as to make one rule answer the purpose of the three commonly used. Mr. Edmund Turrel's Drawing-Board and T square, and the Perspectograph of Mr. Thomas Allason, will be usefully employed in their respective departments of art. The latter instrument is intended for the correct and expeditious delineation of every description of objects: it principally consists of a metal frame, 9 inches by 6, having two graduated scales moving on its surface, the one vertical to the other, for the purpose of finding both the horizontal distances, with the height and proportions of the different objects to be drawn to the lower surface; at right angles with the frames is attached a small beam with a sight-point, capable of being lengthened or shortened, and the whole supported by a triangle forming a walking-stick.

Mr. Thomas Barber, of Princes Street, Soho, received the silver Isis medal for an Angulometer, an instrument for laying down and measuring angles, and which may be used as proportional compasses.

Manufactures.

Here we observe that Messrs. Tharp and Bucke, of Richmond, Surrey, and Mr. G. Flower, of Marden, near Hertford, obtained gold medals for specimens of superfine Cloth manufactured from Merino wool of English growth; and Mr. Thos. Schorrar, of Green-street, Blackfriars, a silver one for his improved machine for blocking Straw-Hats, which are now become an article of most extensive sale.

Mechanics.

"*Segnius irritant animum demissa per aures,*
Quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus." —

Sensible, therefore, of the impossibility of communicating distinct ideas of a complex mechanical apparatus without the aid of either models or engravings, we must touch more lightly on the memoirs in this department than their intrinsic value merits. Four papers, viz. two from Rear-Admiral Sir Home Popham, and two from the Rev. Jas. Bremner, of the Shetland

Isles, communicate improvements on the very important modern invention of Telegraphs. Sir Home Popham's Sea-Telegraph, having only two arms, is nevertheless capable of making two hundred and twenty thousand signals! By means also of the marine vocabulary attached to it, the greatest facility is afforded to the transmission of commercial intelligence. The nature and state of foreign markets, the wants of ships, their exact situation, the time at which they expect to reach their destination, and a hundred other interesting matters of intelligence, may be communicated as ships cross each other, by means of corresponding telegraphs. Among the advantages which they possess over the use of flags, is the extraordinary cheapness of the machine; which, Sir Home says, will not in the first instance cost more than fifty shillings, and its wear and tear will not exceed five shillings in a year.

The Reverend Mr. Bremner, in addition to the premium for the model of a new Day-Telegraph, likewise received the silver medal and fifteen guineas for a simple and ingenious machine by which intelligence may be telegraphically communicated at night. Every previous attempt to effect this object had proved abortive; and no method had been invented by which a single word, much more a distinct sentence, could be conveyed by night to the distance even of one mile. The Night-Telegraph of Mr. B. will operate at once to the distance of twenty miles: a single light constitutes the whole apparatus; and the management consists merely in the alternate exhibition and occultation of that light. Great simplicity is manifest in the construction of both of this gentleman's telegraphs, and his explanation of them is singularly clear and intelligible.

A Traversing Apparatus, by the Reverend Dr. Edmund Cartwright, substitutes a rectilinear for a circular motion; and this mode of draft is certainly much superior to that in which an animal is continually walking in a circle. Here he traverses backwards and forwards in a straight line, the machine always revolving in one and the same direction. This substitute for a Horse-Mill and all its costly apparatus is cheap and portable.

The late Major Charles Le Hardy, of Jersey, contrived a communication between Stranded Vessels and the shore, by means of a kite made of light canvas attached to a log of wood, shaped like a flat-bottomed boat, floating in the water. At the bottom of this log are three or four strong grapples, which fasten themselves like anchors on the shore; and another rope is attached from the log to the boat, by means of which the latter is dragged to land. The gentleman who had the

the merit of this invention died before he could receive the reward of his ingenuity: but the Society, with its wonted liberality, transmitted the gold medal to his son.

Mr. Wm. Bremner, of Lower Eaton Street, Pimlico, has invented two instruments, one for the extirpation of Polypous Tumours, and the other for conveying Ligatures round deep-seated Arteries, but especially the subclavian; which have been rewarded by the Society's gold Isis medal.

Lieutenant Molyneux Shuldham, of the Royal Navy, had the same honour conferred on him for an improvement in the construction of Pullies and Blocks. Three plates, beautifully engraved, exhibit and explain the nature of this invention: as likewise the same ingenious gentleman's improvement of the Capstan. In addition to the usual manner of placing men between the capstan-bars, the ends of the bars have notches or gaps made in them, in which an endless rope is received, and passes through two pulley-blocks; thus forming two strait lines, along which additional men are placed, who can act by pulling the ropes in the most efficacious manner on the capstan.

The Chevalier Baader, of Munich, received a silver medal for his method of communicating Rotary Motion.

Mr. Thomas Pering, of Dorset Street, Salisbury Square, obtained the gold Isis medal for a set of Tables for the expeditious correction of the observed longitude, and the deduction from days' works at sea of the dead reckoning; they have also received the approbation of many nautical men, and are published by Carey, in the Strand.

A gold Isis medal was likewise voted to Mr. James Allan, Blewitt's Buildings, Fetter-lane, for a Theodolite on a new principle, the divisions being read by a micrometer instead of a nonius or vernier: his method of making screws, also, for mathematical purposes, evinces the man of science.

Mr. James Braby, of Vine Street, Lambeth, received a silver medal for a Fire-Escape, which is simple in its construction, and may be of great value in London, where fires are so frequent, by facilitating the escape of persons from the upper windows: women, children, infirm, and sick persons may descend by it in safety. It consists of a pole, resting on a triangular foot, which reaches up to the window; on the front of it is fastened a plank or board fitted to a groove on the back of a sort of cradle or car, and by means of which groove the car slides on the plank along the pole: a rope attached to the car passes over a pulley, at the top of the pole, down a channel grooved at the back of it, covered with a plate of iron to guard the rope from injury by fire: the

rope is then brought under another pulley at the bottom of the pole. By means of this rope, persons in the street may elevate fire-men to give assistance and rescue property, and they are enabled to lower the terrified inmates without danger, at a time when they might not have sufficient self-possession to descend in safety by a common ladder.

Mr. Edward Parker, of Holborn, also received a silver medal for an improved Single Door-Spring; and Mr. Thomas Roberts, of Dumfries, ten guineas for a Machine to remove the dust which is exceedingly prejudicial to persons employed in pointing Needles on the dry grind-stone: the inhalation of this dust having long been known to produce dreadful disease and mortality. — Ventilation is here produced by a Fan-wheel.

Mr. John Goodwin, Veterinary Surgeon, Carlton House, invented a Probang for giving balls to horses, &c. without introducing the arm, which is recommended by several veterinary surgeons, and was honored by a silver medal.

Another silver medal was voted to Mr. Jonathan Dickson, Holland Street, Blackfriars, for his method of propelling Steam-Boats: the improvement consists in raising and lowering the propelling wheels, or their apparatus, while they are in motion, without stopping any part of the machinery of the engine.

"All steam-vessels, hitherto in use, have suffered a great inconvenience owing to their propelling wheels being fixed to a certain depth in the water, and having no means of relieving them according to the load they have to carry; but the great utility of this improvement will hereafter be found by those steam-vessels that may carry sails, and perhaps be the only means of enabling steam-vessels to proceed to sea; for instance, suppose a steam-vessel to be going direct against the wind by means of the whole power of her steam-engine, and that the wind should change and become favourable, the propellers may, by these means, be immediately raised out of the water, and the vessel allowed to have the whole effect of the sails, thereby saving the expence of fuel. All steam-vessels now in use experience so great an impediment from the propellers being always in the water, as to render sails of no use. Another advantage will be derived when there is only a gentle breeze in the vessel's favour, as the propellers can be set to work, which will take hold of the water at pleasure, and thereby unite the power of the steam to that of the wind, which will secure the passage in the given time, at much less expence, as the engine will only consume fuel in proportion to the labour it has to perform. A farther advantage will be found when the vessel has only a side-wind, for, by the use of this contrivance, one of the propelling wheels can be worked with its full power in the water, and the other entirely lifted out, if necessary."

A gold

A gold medal was awarded to Lieutenant-Colonel Bouchette, of Canada, for a complete set of topographical Maps and geographical description of Lower Canada. The testimonials in favor of the excellence of these maps, and of the general qualifications of Col. B. as a surveyor, compose the first article under the general class of

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and the only remaining communication is from Thomas Hoblyn, Esq. of Sloane Street, who was favored with the Society's gold Isis medal for a Rice-Mill sent to Ceylon. When we consider that rice is the great staple article of human food, not only in that island but throughout the immense regions of the East, the importance of machinery which is calculated to clean it most effectually, and prepare it with the least loss and labour, cannot be rated too highly. The method practised by the Cingalese, previously to the introduction of Mr. Hoblyn's mill, was (as he here calls it) 'one of the rudest inventions in nature;' consisting of a large mortar, with a pestle suspended to a lever. By a constant repetition of blows, after twelve hours' labour, only half the contents of the mortar would be found fit for the table, and the rest would be given to poultry, or used in other domestic purposes. The loss sustained by breakage, and the immense labour required in bringing the grain to a marketable state, induced the late Governor-General Sir Thomas Maitland, who during his residence in Ceylon had materially extended and improved the cultivation of grain, strongly to recommend the adoption of some better plan for preparing it. Mr. Huskisson, colonial agent to the island, consequently put the mechanical genius of Mr. Hoblyn under requisition, and he has produced a mill which effectually answers the desired purpose. The mill itself was made by an ingenious engineer, Mr. Maudsley of Lambeth. Sir T. Maitland was Governor-General of the island from 1805 to 1811; and the increased production of rice on the Malabar side of it, effected through his judicious encouragement, is so much to his honour that it ought not to pass unnoticed. In 1806, the produce was 1,289,090 parrahs; and in 1811, it was 2,555,780, making an increase of 1,266,690 parrahs in five years, which would yield 190,000 bags of rice at 9 R. dollars per bag.

By experiments made with the two steam-engines lately sent to Ceylon, it was found that, allowing 300 working days in the year and the engines to work ten hours in a day, they would annually convert 576,000 parrahs of paddy into a quantity of rice equal to 147,347 bags; which, at 9 R. dollars a bag, would amount to 1,326,123 R. dollars: or, at the par

par of exchange of 1s. 9d. per dollar, to 116,035l. 15s. 3d. sterling: while the *same quantity of paddy* being converted into rice by the common method would produce only 82,285 bags, which at 9 R. dollars per bag amount to 740,565 R. dollars, equal to 64,799l. 8s. 9d. The saving, therefore, in one year, by these two machines, is 51,336l. 6s. 6d.

Mr. Hoblyn likewise received the thanks of the Society for his communication respecting an Hydro-mechanical press for extracting Oil from cocoa-nuts; and the public is indebted to the liberality of Messrs. Bramah for the disclosure of the particular construction of this machine, which has been applied by them under the direction of Mr. Hoblyn to the purpose of expressing the oil. An engraving of this elaborate machine is annexed; and we cannot close the present article without expressing our approbation of the singular distinctness and beauty with which the drawings and engravings of the most complicated machinery have been effected. They are indeed worthy of a Society whose object is the encouragement of Art; and, with respect to the Society itself, it is intitled to no common praise for furnishing the public, at the low price of half-a-guinea, with a volume which is pregnant with valuable communications, and the plates alone of which are worth all the money.

ART. VIII, IX, X. *Report on the Poor-Laws; — Mr.* Bicheno's *Inquiry into Benevolence; —* and *Considerations on the Poor-Laws.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 73.]

IT would be a waste of time to enter into the extensive field of inquiry that would present itself, in the developement of the various causes which have contributed to so wide a departure from the spirit of the statute of the 43d Eliz. c. 2., as the administration of it in these days but too generally exhibits. Few if any of these evils, so greatly to be deplored, and so difficult to remedy, arose from legislative enactment; for different, even on the face of our statute-books, as is the aspect which the laws for the relief of the indigent now bear, compared with that which they originally bore, still that difference consists rather in the minor point of the *locus à quo* they are to be supported, than in the essential principle of the description of persons who are intitled to support: which would seem to have been as studiously recognized and as invariably followed in our acts of parliament, as it has been grossly neglected in our workhouses and our vestries. We are of the number of those who agree with the Committee of the

the House of Lords in the opinion which they so decidedly express, that 'the general system of those laws, interwoven as it is with the habits of the people, ought, in the consideration of any measures to be adopted for their melioration and improvement, to be essentially maintained;' in preference to that which seems to be floating in the minds rather than openly declared in the Report of the Committee of the other House, that it would be advisable altogether to abandon it. Entertaining this persuasion, we think also that it is desirable, by some fresh recognition of its principles and by a stricter direction for their observance, to bring back the practical administration of parochial relief to the very plain provisions of the statute of Elizabeth.

To a certain extent, this object seems likely to be effected by the Bill lately introduced into the lower house by Mr. Sturges Bourne, which contains many enactments that we cordially approve. Such, for instance, is the authority given to parish officers to take under their care and management all orphans and deserted children, with those of poor persons who are unable to maintain them, between the ages of five and twelve; and to provide for their maintenance, instruction, and employment, in such suitable places as two Justices shall approve for that purpose. This wise regulation for carrying into effect the first object of the Act of Elizabeth, "the setting to work the children of all such whose parents shall not be thought fit to keep and maintain them," is accompanied by another, without which it would be ineffectual; directing that no Justice or Justices should hereafter have the power of ordering any farther relief for such children, as the churchwardens and overseers of the parish to which they belong shall offer to receive and maintain in this manner. While, therefore, the danger is removed that the pecuniary relief, hitherto granted to parents of this description for the support of their offspring, will be diverted to the support of their own vicious habits, the children will be placed in a situation in which they are likely to be rendered useful members of society, instead of being trained up to add to its burthens, and to become its disgrace.

With regard to the second object of the statute, the setting to work "all such persons, married or unmarried, having no means to maintain them, and using no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by," the new Act judiciously enlarges the powers of the old one, by authorizing the churchwardens and overseers, with the consent of the vestry, to take into their own hands a suitable portion of the lands already in their possession, or to purchase some where they have none, or not

not a sufficient quantity, on which they may set the poor at work in its cultivation on the parish-account. We cannot, however, see the least necessity for limiting this power to twenty acres; convinced as we are that it might safely be left to the discretion of the majority of inhabitants of the parish, to determine for themselves what portion of land would be required for the desirable object of extending to agricultural labour the directions of the Act of Elizabeth for the employment of their poor in manufactures only. They are also empowered to let any portion of such land to poor and industrious inhabitants of the parish, to occupy and cultivate for their own use and benefit, at such rent and for such terms as they shall deem proper. This is a provision which, in country-places, promises to be highly conducive to the main object of all amelioration in our poor-laws; viz. the encouragement of the poor in habits of industry and economy; and, if possible, the rekindling within them that spirit of independence which seems to have been nearly extinguished in their breasts, so as ultimately to enable all except the impotent to provide for their own support. We therefore cannot but consider this as an additional reason for regretting that the means of doing so much good are limited to bounds so narrow, when compared with the extent of some parishes, the distress in them, and the quantity of their uncultivated land.

The greatest evil which has resulted from this part of the old Act, or rather from its practical administration, is the encouragement which it has afforded to the vicious and the dissolute to squander the whole of their earnings in drunkenness and dissipation; knowing, as they do, that when they are left pennyless the parish must keep them and their families from starving. To prevent this mischievous consequence not merely of the present but of all other systems for the relief of the poor, which do not leave them to extricate themselves as they may from their difficulties, or to starve, the new Act judiciously provides that "whenever it shall appear to the Justices, or to the general or select vestry, or to the overseers of the poor to whom application shall be made for the relief of any poor person, that he might but for his extravagance, neglect, or wilful misconduct, have been able to maintain himself, or to support his family (as the case may be), it shall be lawful for *them* to advance money weekly or otherwise by way of loan only; and to take his receipt for and engagement to repay *the same*:" which sum, or any part of it, any two Justices at any time afterward, within a year, may order such person to repay by weekly or other instalments, as by examination into his circumstances he shall appear to

them able to do: on default of which, he is to be committed to the House of Correction for any time not exceeding three months. If Justices and parish-officers perform their duty in making the distinction which they are here *authorized* to make, (it would have been well, perhaps, had they been *required* to make it,) we are convinced that much will be done towards deterring paupers of this class from looking to the parish-fund as a mere bank, to supply their wants in that sickness and poverty to which their own extravagance has reduced them; and that it will even be more operative than the plan which one of the writers before us proposes, of compelling them to wear some conspicuous badge of disgrace, and giving them but a bare sufficiency of the cheapest and the coarsest food. It might, however, be an improvement even on this mode of punishment, if, during the period of their confinement, they were kept to hard labour for the benefit of the parish; whose expences on their account they had refused, when able, to re-imburse.

These observations will make it evident that we are as little favorable to the absence of all discrimination in succouring the poor, as Mr. Bicheno himself can be: but we would confine the sphere of its operation to the mode and manner of administering relief, and not suffer it to determine whether any relief should be administered. In order to provide for the effectual exercise of this prudent caution, it is absolutely necessary that some alteration should be introduced into the system on which the officers charged with the distribution of parochial relief are now elected; and this desirable object is secured by the new Bill, which provides that it shall be lawful for the inhabitants of any parish, who shall be so disposed, to elect annually not more than twenty nor fewer than five of their number: who, together with the resident minister, churchwardens, and overseers, shall constitute a select vestry for the care and management of the concerns of the poor; and to whose directions the overseers are required strictly to conform themselves in the execution of their office, administering relief to no person, except in cases of emergency, without the express order of such vestry. It also enables them to elect a permanent assistant-overseer or overseers, with an annual salary; and to furnish him or them with such powers for the execution of this office as they may deem proper. It is almost needless to point out the use of an active and intelligent officer like this; since, by devoting the whole of his time to this one object, as in populous parishes he would be required to do, he would be enabled to institute those accurate inquiries into the circumstances of every applicant

cant for parochial assistance, without which it never should be granted, but which no person undertaking by compulsion the ordinary functions of an overseer can be expected to make. The superior advantages which a select body of intelligent men would possess, over a vestry composed of all the rate-payers in a parish, in discharging a duty requiring so much judgment and deliberation, must be equally obvious: while the power of inspecting their proceedings twice in every year, and of annually superseding them in their office, should it be judged proper to do this, (which is reserved by the Bill,) would effectually prevent any material abuse of so important a trust. We are not here speaking from any vague theoretical opinions of our own, but are only re-echoing the practical lessons of persons the most conversant with the complicated subject of parochial relief; whose examinations before the Committee of the House of Commons induced that body to report that, in recommending the appointment of assistant-overseers, they 'proceed on grounds of experience rather than theory, the practice having been long beneficially adopted in many populous parishes, either under a provision in local acts, or with the unanimous consent of the parishioners. And it would be sufficient strongly to recommend such a practice, if it were not necessary to legalize the payment of the salary; for, according to the present law, the objection of an individual, however unreasonable, may control, in this respect, the wishes of the rest of the parish.' With equal truth they remark on the other measure introduced into the Bill at their suggestion, the power of appointing a select vestry, that,

'In such a body, acquainted as they must be with the situation, character, and habits, of the applicants, might well be vested that discretion which is so much wanted to discriminate between the claims of the idle and industrious; and their decisions may, it is hoped, supersede the necessity of those appeals to the magistrates, which have been so numerous as to preclude frequently that attention being given to each particular case, which it might otherwise have received, and perhaps suggested the adoption of that scale of relief, which has been applied indiscriminately to those whose earnings, so measured, were found insufficient for their maintenance.'

'In addition to these salutary regulations, the Act contains others equally adapted to secure the more efficient administration of the laws for the relief of the poor; on those principles of a marked distinction between the infirm and the able-bodied, the unfortunate and the dissipated, which so strongly characterizes their original provisions. Of these enact-

ments, the principal confer a power to elect persons not resident within a parish, though contributing to its rates, and living not more than two miles from its boundaries, to the office of overseer, provided that they are willing to take it on them: — enable parishes to unite in a common establishment for children; authorize Justices, at Petty as well as at Quarter-Sessions of the Peace, to compel parents, children, and such others as by law are required when able to contribute to each other's support, to maintain their poor relations: oblige Chelsea, Greenwich, and other pensioners to assign their pensions for the repayment of any parochial relief which they may receive; and authorize any two Justices to order the payment of such pensions to the churchwardens and overseers of parishes to whom persons of this description may leave their families chargeable: with a similar power to order the payment to them of so much of the wages of seamen, not in His Majesty's service, as shall be necessary to re-imburse the parish its expences in the relief of the families of such seamen during their absence at sea. The Bill also provides for the erection of work-houses in parishes which have none, in pursuance of a recommendation of the Committee to that purpose; with which we entirely agree, as it fixes the general odium, under which these receptacles have long laboured, where we conceive it ought to rest, on those who are charged with their superintendance: but it is to be hoped that, under the improved administration of parochial affairs for which such ample provision is now made, this management will be very different from what it has hitherto been.

On other recommendations of the Committee, which have for their aim the restoration of the poor of this country to that spirit of independence which they once possessed, so as to enable them to maintain themselves and their families without parochial assistance, this Bill is silent; and, when we consider the period of the session at which it was introduced, we think that this reserve was prudent, because the abolition of the entire system, on which our legislators have acted for ages, demands more serious consideration than the late parliament could bestow on it during its last sitting: — as it deserves also a more lengthened examination on our part, than we can now permit ourselves to commence. Leaving, therefore, the farther discussion of what may yet be done towards the attainment of this desirable object, to the new parliament, and to some future number of our Review, we proceed to notice the provisions of the Bill which has embodied in its enactments such of the recommendations

mendations of the Committee as it has been judged fit immediately to adopt, for the nearer equalization of a burthen which in the present state of society it is not possible to remove.

The statute of the 43d of Elizabeth, which in common parlance may be considered as the foundation of the poor-laws on the compulsory system of relief on which we continue to act, directs a taxation for the maintenance of the poor of every inhabitant, parson, vicar, and other, and of every occupier of lands, houses, tithes, &c. in such competent sums of money as the churchwardens and overseers shall judge to be proper. How this rate was levied on its first imposition we have no means of ascertaining: but at present it is well known that its chief if not its entire weight lies on the occupiers of land; though it never could have been in the contemplation of the framers of the original Act to impose so unequal a burthen on them. So early, however, as the 9th of Charles I., the Court of King's Bench determined (as, indeed, to make sense of the Act they were compelled to do) that personal property was rateable to the poor; and various subsequent decisions have confirmed the doctrine, which still has but rarely been brought into operation. Lord Mansfield, in one case, went so far as to declare that "the words of the statute were *so* very loose and general that they *might* be construed to any latitude; even to make all a man has, and all a man gets in any way, the measure of his ability: for truly" he adds, "it is so; but usage has explained it and narrowed it." * Within such very narrow limits, indeed, has the liability to this parochial assessment been confined, that, though, as isolated cases presented themselves for decision, our Judges have determined that all visible personal property, such as stock in trade, ships, goods, money, and all other moveables which may attend the owner's person wherever he chuses to go, is as clearly within the provisions of this Act as any land in his occupation can be, still the difficulty of making an assessment in the one case, and the facility with which it is done in the other, have all but universally thrown the maintenance of the poor on the land-holder, and left the monied interest free. We cannot, therefore, be surprized that those who bear this heavy burthen complain of the inequality of its pressure: but the difficulty is how to relieve them from it. There is great truth in the statement made on this subject in the Report of

* Atkins v. Davis, Caldecott, 336.

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the Committee of the House of Commons now under our notice, that

'The intention of the legislature to bring into equal contribution all species of income, has failed in this instance, as it has done subsequently under the original land-tax act, which was designed in its first establishment as a tax on all income; and from the same cause, namely, the difficulty of ascertaining with any reasonable precision, the amount of the contribution, without the exercise of powers which the exigency of the state in time of war has alone induced the legislature to grant. The Committee conceive therefore that the House would deem the equalization of the poor rate, if practicable, purchased too dearly at such a price.'

The system of valuation, constantly adopted in assessing houses and lands to the poor's rate, is very different from the odious inquisitorial power formerly exercised by the Commissioners of the property-tax. It might perhaps, also, be worthy of more serious consideration, whether a mode of rating visible personal property could not be devised, by which it should be made available to the purposes of relieving the poor, in such moderate and equitable proportions that no reasonable man should have any solid ground to object to it, on the appeal which would always be open to him, but on which the *onus probandi* should be cast on him, in shewing that the assessment was excessive; instead of lying, as it now does, on the parish, to prove that it is just and fair. Without some such general measure, we fear that the plan which has been suggested, among others, by the Magistrate whose judicious pamphlet is now before us, of rendering public annuitants and public annuitants alone contributors in aid (if we may so use the term) of the land-holders who now support the poor, would be liable to serious objections, as partial and oppressive. The minor objection, which the Committee of the House of Commons have made against this measure, is that it would be difficult to determine 'in what proportions a sum raised by an assessment on such property' (which confessedly cannot be raised by perochial rates) 'should be distributed among all the parishes of England and Wales, to none of which it has any local relation.' This, however, might be obviated on the plan suggested in the pamphlet just mentioned, of apportioning such sums to each county, according to the amount of poor's rates which it has raised; and subdividing it by the Justices among the parishes in proportion to the assessment paid by each; a mode of division with which they are perfectly familiar, from the equalization which they have made in their county-rates. Still it will be asked by this large class of holders of personal

property, *why are we to be selected?* a question which the land-holders might very justly meet with the retort, "*why are we?*" The only reason, indeed, for either of these descriptions of persons being compelled to bear a burthen which confessedly ought equally to be borne by all, is that their property is visible and tangible, while that of others is not; and we cannot perceive why, when persons stand precisely in the same situation, the like measure of liability should not be dealt to them both. We are not blind, however, to the difficulties or the unpopularity of the measure; which we at least recommend to a more serious consideration than it hitherto has received, because we do not think that either of these objections applies to its justice. We would wish all personal property to be made available to a burthen which it contributes to create equally with real property; and we are not yet satisfied that, because we cannot devise an unobjectionable mode of rating it all, we therefore should not try to reach a part.

Though, however, this be the chief, it is not the only grievance of which land-holders and occupiers of houses complain under the present mode of levying the maintenance of the poor; for, if they are unequally charged to it with respect to the manufacturing and monied interests, they are also rated in many cases in undue proportions among themselves. In consequence of the severe pressure of late years on the middling and lower ranks of society, an immense number of occupiers of small houses have, in most large towns, been excused from paying any assessments, and indeed *from being assessed* to the poor's rate: so that the contributions of the other inhabitants have been alarmingly increasing. In Birmingham alone, out of 18,000 houses, only about 1,500 were until very lately, and perhaps at this moment are, regularly and efficiently rated for this purpose; and their occupiers have paid 17*s.* 4*d.* in the pound. Of the remainder, nearly 14,000 are let for less than 12*l.* a year, chiefly at weekly rents; the amount of which, with that of the other houses excused by the Justices from assessment, is nearly 100,000*l.*, or little less than half the rental of the whole town. To remedy this intolerable evil, the Committee of the House of Commons recommend, and the Bill since brought in by their chairman proposes to enact, as a general law of the land, a provision long since introduced into some local Acts for regulating the management of the poor in several of the larger London parishes, authorizing the assessment of the owners instead of the occupiers of such houses as are let above the rent of 4*l.* and at not more than 20*l.* by the year, for any period less than a year, or

at a rent reserved or made payable within any shorter period than three months.' The reason very properly stated for this measure is, that

'It hath been found, that in many instances the persons letting such houses do actually charge and receive much higher rents for the same, upon the ground and expectation that the occupiers thereof cannot be effectually assessed to the poor's rates, and will not be charged with, or required to pay such rates, and do thus obtain an undue advantage to themselves, and by means of the premises the other inhabitants of such parishes are unjustly compelled to pay much more than their fair and due proportions of the charges of relieving and maintaining the poor.'

Some other plans for equalizing the poor-rates have been suggested, at which we can only glance as we pass. That of assessing manufacturers and others in proportion to the number of persons whom they may have in their service and employ, and consequently in proportion to the probability of their burthening those rates, is, we agree with the Committee of the lower house, highly objectionable, from its manifest tendency to injure our trade, and to operate as a discouragement to the employment of the poor: besides which, we might add that it is doubtful whether Englishmen hold a poll-tax or a property-tax in the greater abhorrence. Some small advance, however, might perhaps be made, towards effecting a point of which the attainment is so desirable, were a legislative exposition given of the equitable provision of the 43d of Elizabeth, that "where the inhabitants of any parish are not able to levy among themselves sufficient sums of money for the purposes of this Act," the Justices may rate any other parish in the hundred, or, if the hundred shall not be deemed able, in the county, for their relief. This power has long been a dead letter on our statute-books; and such it will remain, while our magistrates continue to understand that, before it can be available, the funds of every individual in the parish wishing to take the benefit of it must be so completely exhausted, that the whole of them are become chargeable paupers, with their overseers, begging instead of giving alms, and their rector and churchwardens in the workhouse. This certainly could never be the meaning of the Act; yet so loose are the forms of expression which it here adopts, that, without clearer and fuller directions to the Justices, this section of it will never be reduced to practice.

We now arrive at the third and last division of the Poor-Laws to which the Report of the Commons has directed the attention of the legislature; — that which determines the place in which paupers requiring assistance are to be relieved, or

set at work;—or, as it is more commonly termed, the Law of Settlement. Let not our readers, however, alarm themselves, for we are not about to plunge them into all the intricacies, contradictions, and knotty points of Sessions' learning. The only alteration in this complicated system, which the Bill lately offered to parliament proposes to introduce, is that of empowering two Justices to remove to their respective countries such natives of Scotland, Ireland, and the Isles of Man, Guernsey, and Jersey, as shall not have gained any settlement in England, and yet have become chargeable to some parish there, without their being convicted and punished as rogues and vagabonds, which by the existing law they are required to be. The Committee, however, in their recommendations, stop not with an alteration, of which the practical utility will soon be sensibly felt in some of the most crowded parishes of the metropolis; the greater part of whose contributions for the poor is swallowed up by persons of this description, who have no other claim on them than that they have resided, though it may be but for a day, in some wretched hovel within their precincts. In a bolder spirit of reform, it is their object to revolutionize and overturn every class of settlement which has existed in the land since the restoration of Charles II., and to establish in their stead a residence of three years in any parish, without having been absent from it more than a given number of days. This sweeping provision pays no regard to the character which the person sustains during this abode, whether as master, servant, housekeeper, or lodger; whether as the tenant of his own freehold, or one of twenty joint tenants of a night-cellar, whence he may sally forth by day to gain a settlement in a parish by being a common beggar there. Inhabitancy is to be every thing; without consideration of what is inhabited, or how the person who thus gains a settlement may in the meanwhile have gained a living.

To say nothing of the tendency which this measure must have to increase the burthens of manufacturing districts, already sufficiently overstocked with poor, be it observed that it is proposed for the prevention of frauds and the diminution of litigation: but we have had sufficient experience in matters of this kind to predict very confidently that the dispensation of residence, and the settlement by birth,—which, until this residence has been completed, (though in many cases it never will be completed,) is the only one that will be suffered to remain,—will be more fruitful in producing those very evils which are sought to be remedied, than all those which have ever sprung from the nice distinctions recorded in the works of Nolan, Bott, Const, and Burns. We would not,

however, be misunderstood on this point. Some parts of the law of settlement certainly require revision: but we are persuaded that few men, thoroughly acquainted with its practical details, would venture to recommend any farther alteration than an increase of the value and a better definition of the nature of tenements; together with an extension of the period of residence which now gains a settlement. For other alterations, we say, it would not be worth while to encounter the confusion which they would introduce into a system, of which the principles are now as well defined, and as clearly understood in our courts, as any other branch of our statute-law. — These, and the very obvious precaution of suspending the removal of a pauper until the place of his settlement shall, if litigated, have been determined on appeal to the sessions*, would do more to decrease the expence of parish-litigation, than the whole of the revolutionizing scheme which, we presume, will at some future period be submitted to the consideration of parliament.

With this remark, we must dismiss from our consideration a subject on which much more might be said, if our limits would permit us to devote to it such a discussion as its national importance demands. We rejoice that the parliamentary inquiry, which was instituted in the last year, has already been productive of so much practical good; since, from the measures which have been adopted in consequence of the recommendations of the active and intelligent Committee by whom that inquiry was conducted, we shall now be able to ascertain whether many of the evils which have been attributed to the system of our Poor-Laws have not rather resulted from their mal-administration. We trust, however, that the benefit of their meritorious exertions will not end here: but that we shall have a farther opportunity of congratulating them on the wisdom of their conduct, in the final determination which they may form respecting the policy of engrafting on our law such of their recommendations as they have prudently reserved for more mature deliberation. Among these, we hope that they will not overlook the encouragement of Savings-Banks and of Parochial Benefit-Societies; objects which cannot too earnestly be recommended to the cordial support of those who are interested in advancing the real happiness of the poor, and in promoting in them those habits of industry and frugality which alone can relieve society from

* We are surprized at not having met with this measure in the Bill of which we have here been examining the provisions, as we find it in the Report in which that Bill originated.

the burthen of their maintenance. Still we cannot take leave of them, on the present occasion, without expressing our full concurrence in the disapprobation with which they have noticed the scheme, so popular with some persons, of equalizing the poor-rate, by rendering it a national fund, independent of all parochial distinctions and parochial liabilities. Besides the want of all proper control over its administration, which in this case would universally prevail, we confess that we are too jealous of the influence of the crown to intrust it with such an additional patronage, as an establishment on a scale like this would inevitably create.

In the wide field of observation into which the extent of this subject has led us, we may have seemed almost to lose sight of the two pamphlets which appear with the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons at the head of this article. If, however, the object of their authors be what they profess, and we believe that it is, viz. to provoke a full discussion of the important topics on which they have written, we are sure that they will pardon us for a semblance of neglect which on our parts is not intentional. Differing as we do from them, particularly from Mr. Bicheno, in our views on some points, we can yet safely recommend their works to the attentive perusal of those who feel interested in the past history of the poor-laws, or in their future amendment; for which many useful hints are suggested by these writers.

ART. XI. *A Lexicon of the Primitive Words of the Greek Language*, inclusive of several leading Derivatives, upon a new Plan of Arrangement: for the Use of Schools and private Persons. By the Rev. John Booth, Curate of Kirkby Malzeard, near Ripon, Yorkshire. 8vo. pp. 308. 9s. Boards. Law and Whitaker. 1817.

OUR learned readers are, doubtless, all well acquainted with the Port Royal collection of Greek primitives, either in the original metrical French or in Mr. Nugent's prose translation; to which, as it is both more convenient and in more general use than the original, we shall take the liberty of referring in this article. We shall not dispute with the gentlemen of the Port Royal, or with Mr. Booth, about the meaning of the term *primitive*. It is used by them in a lax sense, and is widely different from what may be strictly called *radical*: but, as these works are intended principally for the use of learners, an intimation of this kind should have been given to prevent mistakes. We shall remedy this inconvenience, as far as we can, by stating the distinction.

The

The first *primitive* in Mr. Booth's collection is ἀβρότη, nox: *night, darkness*; and the same word is the fifth in Nugent: but it is not a *radical* term. Its radix is α and βροτὸς, meaning the time not suited for the labour of men: or the time at which men are not to be seen. How, then, is it a *primitive?* Only because other words are *directly* derived from it, such as ἀβροτάζω, ἀβροτέω, ἀμβροτέω, &c. By *primitives*, therefore, in these collections, we are to understand those words which are the immediate parents of a class of derivatives; and by *radicals*, those which form the etymological roots of the primitives themselves. Hence it will follow that all radicals must be primitives, but it will not be true conversely that all primitives must be radicals.

The primitives of the Port Royal were probably taken from Stephens, or rather from Scapula, and comprize those words which head a class of derivatives in these Lexicons: while those of Mr. Booth are either taken directly from the Port Royal, or from the above source, but have a different, and, as we think, in many respects a less convenient arrangement. That of the Port Royal is simply alphabetical; first the word, next its Latin, then its English signification, its gender and genitive case if a substantive, its terminations if an adjective, its future and perfect tenses if a verb; and, at the bottom of the page, are placed its principal derivatives, with their significations. Mr. Booth conceives that his plan 'will be found to border on the genuine *lucidus ordo*, in which, in their lexicons and dictionaries, the words of languages ought to be arranged:' but we are inclined to think that such arrangement would only introduce perplexity and confusion.

To effect his purpose, the author first takes the nouns; which, with some grammarians who wish to simplify, he divides into three declensions, with very numerous subdivisions, each having a separate alphabetical arrangement: — the adjectives he divides into five classes; — the baryton verbs into four conjugations, omitting some characteristics, as κτ, ττ, (which, indeed, can scarcely be called an omission, since he keeps σσ,) and μν; — the contracted verbs into two conjugations; — and three separate classes in σκω, μι, υμι. The primitives, under each of these classes and each subdivision, are then arranged in separate alphabets, with their Latin and English significations; and at the top of the page are the class and genitive termination of the nouns, and the class, future, and perfect, of the verbs. Many inconveniences must arise from this minute and laborious subdivision of the primitives into so many distinct alphabets; of which we have

not fewer than 42 before we come to the end of the noun-adjectives; * and we cannot see what advantage the learner is to gain by finding all the primitives of each separate declension or conjugation under distinct alphabets, rather than by having them all in their simple alphabetical order. They are all unconnected with each other, or they could not be primitives: therefore, their classification must be mere matter of fancy; and we should say that the one which is simplest is best.

We think, also, that Mr. Booth's reduction of the number of declensions and conjugations, though not without respectable authority, is not calculated to *facilitate* the acquirement of the language to a beginner, and books of this kind are principally useful to learners only. For instance; the fifth declension of simple nouns, with its subsequent separate contract declensions, is, we are confident, easier and more intelligible to a learner in our common grammars, than the same, estimated as the third by Mr. Booth, with its almost endless scheme of at least twenty-seven subdivisions: to which, after all, must be added a class of nouns in ω and ως, and a class of exceptions, and which is even then imperfect, since the genders cannot be duly comprehended in all this variety of subdivision. Thus, under the very first class of *masculines* ending in ν, we have ὁ καὶ ἡ χιὼν, and ἡ φρὴν; and the same anomaly will be found to exist under nearly all the other terminations. Nothing, therefore, seems to be gained in point of accuracy, and much is lost in point of perspicuity.

We have thrown out these observations from no disrespect to Mr. Booth, but because we apprehend that, in books intended for learners, too much attention cannot be paid to clearness and simplicity. Attempts to generalize lead in most cases to numerous exceptions; and exceptions not only are always remembered with difficulty, but, in proportion to their number, cause confusion and perplexity. The great object in elementary books should be to give plain rules in the fewest possible words; avoiding cumbrous minuteness on the one hand, and indiscriminating generalities on the other. Particular rules may be too numerous for the learner, and general rules be too comprehensive. The well-founded and experienced scholar can generalize for himself.

Another defect, which strikes us in Mr. Booth's book, is the want of the derivatives which are subjoined to the bottom of the page in that of Nugent: but this the author intends to remedy by publishing a work,

* In which a brief hint of the signification of the primitive word is often followed by select derivative ones, illustrative of the etymologies

nologies of many words of frequent occurrence, as well vulgar as technical, which owe their etymon to this learned language: V. G.

'κόμη, Coma, *hair.* κομάω, Comatus sum, Comam alo, *to have or be adorned with long hair, to improve or* COMB *the hair; form it in ringlets.* κομήτης, ου, ὁ, Comans, Comatus, crinitus, *having waving hair, wearing bushy tresses, hairy.* κομήτης, subauditur ἀστήρ, *a Star;* Cometa, stella, Comata, *a Comet, hairy or blazing star.*'

This, however, seems to us merely what ought to have been done in the present work; and, when it is done, it will render this lexicon of comparatively small value.

A most important feature in Mr. Booth's publication is one in which we cannot think that he has been eminently successful:

'Let it be further noticed, especially among the substantives and adjectives, that those words which are without a mark, are, generally, the best in the language; those with an asterism (*) are, for the most part, somewhat inferior; any with an obelisk (†) are more inferior still; and such as have the obelisk inverted (⸸), rank the lowest of any in this collection.'

If well executed, and none but a very good scholar should attempt it, this would be a very useful performance. With regard to the unmarked words, though they are not in all instances free from objection, we do not deem it necessary to make any animadversion: but, with respect to the marks, they sometimes appear placed improperly, and sometimes placed where none ought to be. Thus we find 'Αράχνης *, Araneus, Aranea, *a spider, an Aran:* (which latter phrase, by the way, is new to us:) ἀρβύλη †, calceamenti genus, *a kind of shoe:* ἄϋτμη *, halitus, &c.: βῆσαι †, saltus, &c. Now we are at a loss to understand why these words are thus *differently* marked. 'Αράχνης (or ἀράχνη and ἄραχνος which are the same *primitive*) is used by Hesiod, Dies 777., Bacchylides, fragm. de Pace, Sophocles, fragm. Inachi, Æschylus, Supplices 900., Euripides, fragm. Erecthei, and Pindar, fragm., who are all unquestionably good and antient poets, *veteres atque probi*, as Horace would call them; to say nothing of those who have written in the Anthology, and may belong to a later age. Aristotle, Plutarch, and Dioscorides, use the word in prose, and therefore we cannot call it *merely* poetical; we presume that it is the best word in the language to express *a spider*, and we cannot see why it should be marked as a somewhat *inferior* term.

The next word is ἀρβύλη †, *calceamenti genus*, which is marked as the lowest admitted into this collection. Now it is

to

to be found in Æschylus, Ag. 953., where the reader may see Stanley's remarks; in Euripides, Orest. 140., and seven times more; and ἀρβύλις in Theocritus, Idyll vii. 25. After such authority, we should scarcely call the word one of the lowest in the language. It may be elevated by poetical usage, but it is repeatedly adopted by the best writers in the best ages, and therefore cannot well be called *low* Greek.

Next, Ἀϋτμὴ * is marked as a somewhat inferior word: but it occurs in Homer not less than twelve times, in Hesiod, and in Apollonius Rhodius. It may be *poetical*, but why *inferior?*

Βῆσαι †, or as it is commonly written βῆσσαι, which is marked as a still lower word, and in the lowest class but one, is used in Homer still more frequently, in Apollonius Rhodius twice, and in an anonymous fragment in Hephæstio, c. 15.: so that, if it be a *poetical*, we see no reason for calling this also an *inferior* word; and still less why it should be marked lower than ἀϋτμὴ, when it rests on nearly the same authority.

We have taken these words in their order, as mere specimens: but, had we selected the most objectionable, we should have been able to make a much stronger case. Thus we have δικελλα †, which occurs in Æschines in Ctesiph. c. 39.; κλισια *, so constantly familiar to the readers of attic Greek; ἀρίστον *, μέδιμνος †, ὠόν †, and a great number more, which are all proper words, used by the best writers in the best ages, and yet are here marked with a greater or less intensity of degradation, as inferior to the words in common use.

Mr. B. seems in these and innumerable other instances to have affixed his marks (if he be the original inventor of them) without sufficient consideration, or at least without sufficient explanation. Had he used the asterisk to mark poetical words, the obelus for words introduced by late or inferior writers, and the inverted obelus to mark those which have been adopted from extraneous languages into Greek, the learner would have been led to affix precise and definite ideas to the symbols, and have been gradually made acquainted with the purest and most original words. At present, we consider the marks as too vague and arbitrary to be of essential use; and we offer these hints for Mr. Booth's consideration, if he should have occasion to publish a second edition. At the same time, we must acknowlege that we do not see the superior excellence of his system; and we fear he will find that he has employed his valuable time, and a considerable portion of learning, on an object which is not attended with commensurate advantages.

ART.

ART. XII. *Travels through France and Germany*, in the Years 1815, 1816, and 1817; comprising a View of the Moral, Political, and Social State of those Countries. Interspersed with numerous Historical and Political Anecdotes, derived from authentic Sources. By J. Jorgenson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 416. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1817.

THE pretensions of this traveller are not few, nor moderate; and yet we must at once declare that we have been neither amused nor edified by him. If, indeed, in our perusal of his book, we have been conscious of any thing like amusement, we must avow it to have consisted of that mixed sentiment which the contemplation of prejudice and ignorance, combined with high-sounding pretensions, can scarcely fail to inspire.

Mr. Jorgenson is pleased to inform us in his preface (p. xv.) that, 'brought up in the arms of Neptune, and torn from the bosom of his friends at the early age of fourteen, he has been unable to acquire that literary knowledge and grammatical perfection which might render him eminent as a writer; and as the following narrative of his travels is given nearly as it was written in Germany, whence he has but very lately returned, he is apprehensive that some verbal inaccuracies may have escaped him.' — The inference is very modest; and we should readily have forgiven so pardonable a delinquency, considering especially the plea that has been offered in palliation of it, had we discovered much of those redeeming qualities of 'truth, simplicity, and perspicuity' to which he immediately afterward proceeds to lay claim. It unhappily turns out, however, that the 'verbal inaccuracies' *make up in number what they want in weight*; and that the 'truth, simplicity, and perspicuity,' are too often little else than vulgar national prejudice, frivolous anecdote, and the usual insipidities of a verbose and trite phraseology: but our chief object of remark is the very different kind of sentiments which this gentleman entertains with regard to certain classes in society, from those by which most of his professional brethren are said to be actuated. In common with the rest of mankind, we have hitherto been accustomed to regard the character of a British sailor as distinguished not less for sentiments of generosity and independence than of bravery; and above all as possessing, on the one hand, the most cordial sympathy with all the wants and wishes of the people, (particularly the poorer and more suffering part of them,) and, on the other, something very like contempt for the factitious dignity of mere wealth, title, or power. This son of Neptune, however, cherishes the converse of these sentiments, and holds that men are to be suspected

suspected and despised, or lauded, flattered, and admired, in proportion to their inability or their power to confer favours. Speaking of the lower orders of the people of Europe in general, he remarks:

'With very few exceptions, the author has found the lower classes to be envious, deceitful, fawning when they expect to gain something, and insolent when nothing is to be gotten, cherishing a perfect contempt for every thing which has the appearance of poverty; discontented, filthy in their houses, and disgusting in their manners. We read much in novels about that content and happiness which are only to be found in the cottage: it is said that the cheerful and healthy peasant, or day-labourer, free from care, anxiety and distempers, and from the disquietudes of ambition, enjoys more real and heartfelt satisfaction than the king on the throne. Nearly two years has the author been travelling in quest of some cottage in which he might find this picture verified; but he has not hitherto attained the object of his research. On the contrary, whenever he has had any intercourse with persons of higher rank, he has found them less inclined to envy, affable in their manners, easy of access, ever ready to render a service, and free from that baseness of character which distinguishes the lower classes.' (Preface, p. ix.)

Accordingly, he does not fail to introduce, in the course of his narrative, abundance of egotistical anecdotes regarding the number of times that he was cheated, or suspected that he was going to be cheated, by jew-pedlars, petty shopmen, and publicans of the lowest order; (whose *cabarets*, in virtue of his quality as a foot-traveller, he appears chiefly to have frequented;) as if any countenance were thus afforded to his heartless proposition: — while sovereigns, diplomatists, and prime-ministers, Mr. George Rose, jun., the King of Prussia, and Lord Castlereagh, are the only honest and praise-worthy personages in the world — of his book.

We decline to enter into any detail of the national prejudices and antipathies with which this volume abounds. The French, in particular, appear to be the objects of Mr. Jorgenson's especial aversion; and, accordingly, all the vulgar and groundless common-places of abuse, with which that people have been so liberally treated in this country for the last quarter of a century, — but which we thought were at length disappearing, and a distinction admitted between the people themselves and the revolutionary governments of which they have so long been the victims, — make a very prominent feature of his journal. The inhabitants of Saxony, too, both prince and subjects, possess no good quality whatever, but are in every respect, whether moral or physical, historical, political, or religious, in times past, present, and future, perfectly detestable, because, having

once

once deemed it essential to their safety, like the greater part of the rest of Europe, to ally themselves with Bonaparte, they adhered somewhat longer to their engagements than their neighbours. We rather proceed to take notice of one or two instances of that presumptuous pretension to which we have alluded. Thus he assures us in his preface (p. xiv.), that he is about to give a developement of Bonaparte's gigantic plan against the British possessions in India, which will fully account for all the contradictions apparent in his line of policy for a series of years; — that he will, secondly, detail the true history of the *Tugenbund*, or Bond of Virtue, from which sprang, as he has chosen to remark, (with an absurd substitution of cause for effect,) all that enthusiasm which inspired the Prussians when they rose in a body to oppose the French; — and, thirdly, that he will disclose to us certain clauses of the *Secret Treaty* formed between Bonaparte and the King of Saxony, on the return of the latter from his interview with the Emperor of Austria at Prague. These different communications, he says, are dervied from *original and inedited documents*, and from *sources of the highest authority*. We were impatient, accordingly, to arrive at those pages of the publication in which such interesting and authentic information was to be imparted; though, from what we had already perused of the book, we can scarcely say that we were disappointed on finding neither statement nor authority beyond the forgotten newspaper-trumpery of the times, from which the whole appears to have been collected. A short extract on the subject of the *Secret Treaty*, the ground on which the severity measured out to Saxony by the allied Sovereigns has been justified, will suffice as a specimen both of the importance and the authority of Mr. Jorgenson's communications.

'The King of Saxony,' says he, 'left his capital, and proceeded to Prague, in order to have a personal conference with the Emperor of Austria, professing, at the same time, a wish to abandon the cause of Napoleon: the negotiation, however, failed; and his Saxon Majesty returned to Dresden, where he was received by the French Emperor with all possible demonstrations of joy and sincere friendship. It is said, that the King imparted certain secrets to Bonaparte, which he had drawn from the Emperor of Austria, and which enabled Napoleon to take such measures as had nearly frustrated the plans of the allies. When two sovereigns have a personal interview, it is generally held as a maxim of honour, that nothing should transpire which has been imparted in confidence. Buonaparte certainly obtained some knowledge, which he never could have acquired, except through the medium of the Saxon king. I will not, however, go so far as to say that his

his Majesty did really, himself, communicate what he had learned, to Napoleon; but he may, probably, in confidence, have mentioned the circumstance to the Jesuit Schneider, and to his minister, who were both in the interest, and, some say, in the pay of Buonaparte. However, this breach of good faith induced the allied sovereigns to think that the King of Saxony did not proceed to Prague for the purpose he professed, but with a view to penetrate into their designs.—

'Report says, that, after the return of the King of Saxony from Prague, Buonaparte and his Saxon Majesty entered into a new and solemn treaty of alliance; in which it was stipulated, that the King of Saxony should exert all his means to support, aid, and assist the Emperor Napoleon, in driving the Russians back into their own country, and to accomplish the conquest of the dominions of the King of Prussia. In order to indemnify the King of Saxony for the losses and expences he might incur, in accomplishing this object, it was further stipulated, that the marches of Brandenburg, the duchy of Pomerania, and all other dominions and territories belonging to his Prussian Majesty in Germany, should be ceded, in full sovereignty, to the King of Saxony, and for ever compose a part of the kingdom of Saxony. Another clause was added, stating, that Prussia *proper* should be incorporated with the states of Poland. Thus the gallant King of Prussia was to be deprived of all his dominions.—This important document was placed in the archives of Dresden. but when the allied sovereigns entered that capital, it was suspected that they might resolve to pursue the example which the Great Frederick had set them on a former occasion, when that excellent monarch caused the secret treaty between Austria, Russia, and Saxony, to be taken out of the archives of Dresden, and published, to the utter confusion of his high-spirited enemies. The treaty above alluded to was, therefore, removed in great haste from the archives, and deposited in a certain room in the house of a minister. I have mentioned, that report says so; but I think it would not be difficult to point out the name of the individual who was entrusted with the important document, and *even to produce a copy of it*, if it were necessary.' (P. 395—397.)

The author possesses yet another feature besides those that we have noted, which, if more congenial to the character of a British sailor, is less accommodated to that of an instructive traveller,—we mean credulity. It unfortunately happens, however, that this propensity is all on one side wherever any thing *French* is the subject of investigation, it being impossible that any good can be believed of so execrable a people. The pork-butchers of Paris, it seems, made no scruple of manufacturing their sausages of all the dead horses that they could purchase of the English, while the army was encamped near St. Cloud; for which carrion they paid monstrously high prices; affecting so little mystery, too, with this sort of cookery,

cookery, that they might at any time have been seen scraping and preparing the meat. A less noble species of animal, it appears, constitutes likewise a very usual fricassee or ragout at Paris: but we will impart this fact in the traveller's own words, requesting our readers carefully to remark the very important medical discovery to which it happily conducted.

'I was once or twice very particularly struck, on hearing my landlady break out in the most mournful accents, when she had been informed that one or the other of her cats had not been seen the whole of the morning. She exclaimed most piteously, "Poor dear creature! I shall never see you more!" At first these sad ejaculations appeared to me incomprehensible, until the Mameluke, whom I frequently met, informed me that the people who kept eating-houses were in the habit of stealing all the cats they could procure, in order to dress them into fricassees and ragouts for their customers. The French never make any inquiry respecting the species of the animal they are eating, whether it be a cat or a rabbit; but it sometimes happens that a stranger is not so easily satisfied, and will request to see the head, before he attempts to taste the dish before him. A Frenchman, however, is not to be surprised in this way: the host is prepared against all casualties, and will immediately present the head of a boiled or stewed rabbit, which is kept for the purpose; whence it often happens that the head of one rabbit answers to the bodies of a dozen murdered cats. The Mameluke guard told me, with great gravity of countenance, that it was mere prejudice which made a man prefer a rabbit to a cat: jesting apart, he assured me, *on his honour*, that the meat of the latter tasted much sweeter than that of the former. He added, that if soldiers were so nice in their choice, one half of them would often perish with hunger, during some campaigns. I now began plainly to conceive the reason why the French people are so much afflicted with scrofulous diseases, which render the hot-baths so necessary to them. Putrid horse-flesh, and the vast quantities of gross fat in their légumes, sufficiently account for the existence of those maladies.' (P. 151.)

It is perhaps unnecessary to add any thing farther; except that, with all the advantages for observation connected with the pedestrian mode of travelling, Mr. Jorgenson has certainly communicated little that can either correct our mistakes or increase our knowlege, on the important subjects of the political, moral, or religious condition of the lower and ordinary classes of the people in any of the countries which he has traversed.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1818.

TRAVELS.

Art. 13. *Travels in Upper Italy, Tuscany, and the Ecclesiastical State;* in a Series of Letters, written to a Friend in the Years 1807 and 1808: to which are added a few occasional Poems. By Baron D'Uklanski. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 382. 11. 1s. Boards. Hatchard. 1816.

The present book of travels may be considered as a continuation of the small work which we noticed, at some length, in our Number for March 1817. It begins with a short but pathetic address to the reader, intimating the misfortunes and death of the writer; and adding that the publication takes place under the direction of his disconsolate widow: but it has a claim to the public favour on other grounds than those of sympathy, for it contains a considerable share of good matter, the result of the observation of an active and ardent mind.

Setting out from the Italian Tyrol, the Baron traversed successively Verona, Mantua, Bologna, Florence, and Rome; of all of which, but particularly the last two, we are presented with circumstantial and ample accounts. The antient metropolis of the world occupies the latter part of the first and the whole of the second volume; which contain an account, not only of the principal edifices, but of the particular statues, paintings and other ornaments scattered throughout the habitations of the great families. In this detail, the Baron is occasionally too minute, and he certainly exhibits not the talent of methodical arrangement in these volumes more than in the preceding; but, on the other hand, he makes a point of avoiding repetition and wire-drawn reflections. We rise from the perusal of his remarks, not indeed with a complete and clear impression of the grand features of the place described, but with the knowlege of a number of useful and pleasant particulars; which, by the aid of a revisal and comparison with more accurately finished works, suffice to convey a tolerably distinct idea of the scene under delineation. The author is said to have been actuated by a sense of honour to a strict and even to a romantic degree, a disposition which may easily be traced in the historical reflections which escape him. We have discovered a few foreign phrases, but the number is inconsiderable; and the extent of idiomatical or verbal error is uncommonly small in a foreign writer who had studied our language only a few years. Imperfections of this kind are more observable in some short poetical effusions which close the work, and in which the Baron has introduced a variety of allusions to remarkable localities surveyed by him in the course of his peregrinations. He was, on the whole, an extensive traveller; the "Letters from Albion" noticed in our lxxviith vol. (p. 132.) having also proceeded from his pen.

Art.

POETRY.

Art. 14. *Hours of Solitude;* or Poems on various Subjects. Dedicated to Walter Scott, Esq. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

Mr. Walter Scott is here placed on hard duty, being made to perform the part of a star and a shower, a musical instrument and a shield, in the first eight lines of the first poem. Some instances also occur of awkward or needless ellipsis, as in page 10.,

> 'Sweet's the hour of resignation.'—
> 'Oh! how sweet's commiseration;'

and page 13.,

> 'There *th'* weeds that vainly flaunted
> When *th'* pitying hand that rear'd thee,' &c.

The lines on Suicide, page 114., are among the most expressive, but they are censurable because they palliate too much the immoral action which forms their subject.

We quote the poem intitled 'Retribution:'

> 'O! peace to that bosom so tender and true,
> The dear maid that I franticly gave up for you!
> Heart-broken I left her in silent despair,
> While interest allur'd me to thy fatal snare!
>
> 'How dark is the gloom that o'ershadows my day,
> Now the rose-bud of love is all wither'd away!
> But the thorn of that rose is the sting of regret;
> Oh! it pierces the heart that can never forget!
>
> 'The hour of delusion, of falsehood, is flown,
> Upbraid not the heart that was never thy own.
> How faulter'd the hand that was treach'rously sold,
> I barter'd the peace of my bosom for gold!
>
> 'Oh! where are the charms, and fair promise of wealth?
> Fled, fled is contentment, and fast fading health;
> No balm of consolement its smiles can bestow,
> It gilds with false splendor the mansion of woe!
>
> 'Then, find, thou dull partner, in absence relief:
> Nor seek the cold bosom of comfortless grief!
> Nay, say not the fate of thy heart is severe!
> It mock'd at true passion and agony's tear!
>
> 'You smil'd on the traitor, too fondly caress'd;
> The hand that was plighted exulting possess'd!
> Now lone, and neglected, you mourn the long day,
> While the pang of my heart steals my life's blood away.'

Art. 15. *Lyrical Pieces*, and other Poems. By Henry Thomas Heathcote, of the Theatre Royal, Cheltenham. Royal 8vo. pp. 100. Longman and Co. 1817.

The 'remarks on theatricals,' in Mr. Heathcote's dedication, have nothing to do with his poems; which turn on the well-known

subjects of love and beauty, tears and smiles, and other things of the same sort. The lines are easy and flowing, but they contain little that is either striking or original. The ensuing *Ballad* may serve as a specimen:

'BALLAD.

'Keep thy truth, sweet love! awhile,
And doubt not I will fondly cherish
Hope and love, till fortune smile,
And ev'ry painful tear shall perish!

'Trust me, tho' compell'd to rove,
At distance still my heart hangs o'er thee;
For 'twas only form'd to love,
To honour, cherish, and adore thee.

'Forms as lovely as thine own,
And eyes as bright may beam around me,
Pow'rless all! 'tis thine alone,
Possess the only charm to wound me.

'Fate may frown, and friend reprove
In vain! my faith disdains to faulter,
While thy smiles repay the love,
An age of absence cannot alter!'

It is not necessary to remark on the minute inaccuracies of this common-place declaration of fidelity.

Art. 16. *The Sunday-School;* a Poem. By Sam. Whitchurch. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Kent. 1816.

Mr. Whitchurch seems to have a practical acquaintance with his subject, and an enthusiastic attachment to it; and he takes in a wide range of allusions, bringing us in the first canto from the tower of Babel down to Robert Raikes, the worthy founder of Sunday-schools in England: but his poem has many prosaic passages, as in page 16.;

'Oh! 'tis most painful to reflect
What numbers perished through neglect
Of tutorage when young,' &c.

Does not this writer apprehend, also, that some patrons of Sunday-schools may withdraw their subscriptions, if he assures them, as at pages 56. and 57. that, when these institutions shall have attained their full popularity and perfection, we shall see

——'the independent Muse
All subjects for her verse refuse
Irrelative to fact?'

That, in short, we are to receive the gift of writing only to shew that we have not that of inditing, when

'Thalaba shall be read no more:
Unheard be Byron's farewell moan;
And even silent then the tone
Of the Last Minstrel's Lay.'

Art.

Art. 17. *The Bridal of the Isles:* a Mask. Second Edition. The Blighted Hope; a Monody. By Charles Knight. 12mo. pp. 74. Boards. Wilson. 1817.

Although these compositions display a portion of poetic fancy, some of the images are incongruous; as when the writer (in page 21.) gives to *Solitude* a numerous family, making her the spouse of Imagination, and the mother of 'all the playful brood of joys;' and when he invokes the 'Genius of Marriage,' (p. 31.)

'*By the prayers of aged Bliss!*'

Some expressions also are forced or affected; as '*noiseful wave:*' '*a coil of* Music:' 'full-lipped kisses:' '*voiceful mirth:*' '*sheeny bower,*' &c. &c.

Art. 18. *Poems, on Various Subjects.* By Miss Elizabeth Bower Blease. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Darton and Co. 1817.

This fair writer has chosen trite subjects for her verses, such as *man,* the *moon, a rose,* and *the recovery of a favourite dog;* and her rhymes are frequently incorrect, as in pages 1. and 2. *resign, clime; — name, again; — supreme, scene; —* &c. Yet some of her little poems may be commended as pleasing.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 19. *Memorie of the Somervilles;* being a History of the Baronial House of Somerville. By James, eleventh Lord Somerville. 2 Vols. large 8vo. pp. 998. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The present is one of those biographical narratives that are much better calculated to flatter the importance of a family, than to afford instruction or amusement to the public. The writer of the MS., from which these volumes were printed, lived in the 17th century, and is admitted to have been particularly deficient in point of historical information; while, with regard to style, his prolixity is such as we have seldom seen equalled. Still, the publication is defended as preserving certain curious details, traits of manners, and personal anecdotes, that are beyond the proper sphere of history. As almost every family of old standing, however, is possessed of MSS. like the present, to a greater or less extent, we must object to a general practice of laying them before the public, unless recommended by collateral circumstances; such as the discharge of important functions, or the performance of actions of historical notoriety by individuals of the family.

The Somervilles appear to have come over with the Conqueror; to have been ennobled by Edward III; to have forfeited their estates under John; to have recovered them in the next reign; and from that period, as far as the English branch of the family is regarded, to have fallen into a kind of progressive decline, until their lineage ended in the person of the celebrated author of the *Chace.* A branch of this family, settling in Scotland, was invested in the 12th century with the lordship of Linton in Roxburghshire, in reward for destroying, as it is related, a serpent or dragon which infested the country. A long description of the conflict is given

in these pages, and the author is not a little mortified that it should not have been recorded in any history of the times; — a silence which, in his opinion, 'can have proceeded only from the dullness and ignorance of the age.' From that time, the Scotish branch advanced in property and consequence, till the reign of Mary Queen of Scots; after which they gradually decayed, partly from family-dissensions and law-suits, but more from a spirit of rude hospitality which degenerated into extravagance, and so reduced their property that James, the eleventh Lord Somerville, writer of the present memoir, declined, like his father and grandfather, to assume the title from inability to support it. James, the thirteenth lord, is said to have found himself, on coming of age in 1714, in possession of only 300l. per ann.: but he re-instated his affairs by marrying an heiress, and purchased the reversion of an estate in Staffordshire, belonging antiently to the English branch of the family.

In the preface, the attention of the reader is directed to certain passages, as calculated to convey a curious and lively picture of old Scotish manners; and, though the sagacity of the writer of the memoir is not extolled, his opinions on men and events are held forth as a fair specimen of those of a Northern Baron of the 17th century. We cannot, however, fully agree in this eulogium, and are much more disposed to be grateful for the reduction of the present work from a MS. of two closely written folio volumes. Occasionally, a meritorious character appears, particularly among the ladies, whose prudence and domestic economy form a striking contrast to the extravagance of their consorts: but the details neither throw new light on the history of the times, nor are calculated to exalt the family in public opinion; the Somervilles seldom coming forwards in times of difficulty, and being marked, in their private character, by no small share of vanity.

Eleven plates are annexed to this work; one, a portrait of the present Lord, and another representing the author of the *Chace*: the rest are views of seats, and family-monuments, none of which possess particular interest with respect either to the scenery or the execution.

Art. 20. *Memoirs of Madame Manson*, explanatory of her Conduct on the Trial for the Assassination of M. Fualdès. Written by herself, and addressed to Madame Enjalran, her Mother. With a Portrait. Translated from the French, and accompanied by an Abstract of the Trial; and a concise Account of the Persons and Events alluded to in the Memoirs, by the Translator. 12mo. pp. 252. 5s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

While the circumstances attending the barbarous murder of M. Fualdès are too recent and too notorious to require any detail from us; the extraordinary conduct and gross prevarications of the heroine of this tale, which ended in altering her situation from that of a witness to that of an accused, are also well known. The Memoirs before us, which are alleged to be written by her from the prison of the Capuchins in which she was confined, are curious only from the pertinacity with which she continues to contradict her

her first deposition, and the violence with which she asserts her ignorance of the whole affair. Her audacity in persevering in assertions which have since been proved to be false, and in endeavouring to impose on her mother by the repetition of the tale, cannot but be disgusting; while the peculiarity of her style, and the mystery which she throws over her observations, create an interest in her fate which, considering the alternative in which she is placed either by her ignorance or her knowlege of the transaction, is altogether unaccountable. The second trial has taken place, and she has been acquitted of any participation in the murder; the result with respect to the other accused persons is nearly the same. We briefly mentioned a report of the proceedings in our Appendix to Vol. lxxxiv. p. 544.

A portrait is prefixed: but, if we may judge from its total want of beauty, we should say with regard to it, as *Madame* says, of those that are sold in Paris, that 'the purchaser is defrauded of his money.'

EDUCATION.

Art. 21. *A Father's First Lessons;* or, A Day's Instructive Excursion; containing the First Elements of useful Knowledge. Translated from the French of L. F. Jauffret, Author of "The Travels of Rolando," &c. 12mo. pp. 200. Souter. 1818.

Some general information is here conveyed in a rather attractive form, and the book may therefore be recommended to young readers, although the language and expressions are not always sufficiently simple for them; as, p. 23., 'to *irrigate* Lombardy;' and p. 145., '*insulated assemblages*,' &c.

Art. 22. *The Good Grandmother, and her Offspring;* a Tale. By Mrs. Hofland, Author of "The Son of a Genius," &c. &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hunter. 1817.

This promises to be a very useful little work: the style is unaffected and natural; the first part of the story is excellent; and the whole has the merit of affording an affecting picture, as well as an interesting lesson of morality and industry.

NOVEL.

Art. 23. *Edric, the Forester:* or the Mysteries of the Haunted Chamber. An Historical Romance. By Mrs. Anne Ker, Author of "The Heiress di Montalde," &c. &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. Sewed. Hughes. 1817.

A total want of grammatical accuracy is among the least faults of this paltry performance: its moral is not more applicable to common life than that of Jack the Giant-Killer, shewing that ogres and murderers will certainly be punished; and we should prefer the vagaries of that nursery-story to the mawkish absurdities of the present tale. '*The ladies Ellen and Elgiva, for that were their names,*' are confined in dungeons, because '*it was not Lord Fitzosric's intentions to marry;*' and they are released by Lady Jane, who had imprisoned herself during thirteen years in a haunted room, and performed the part of a ghost from pure

good will, though she constantly possessed the means of escaping, and of claiming a noble fortune!

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *A Defence of the Wesleyan Methodist Missions in the West Indies*, including a Refutation of the Charges in Mr. Marryat's "Thoughts on the Abolition of the Slave Trade, &c.," and in other Publications, with Facts and Anecdotes illustrative of the Moral State of the Slaves and of the Operation of Missions. By Richard Watson, One of the Secretaries to the Committee for the Management of the Wesleyan Methodist Missions. 8vo. pp. 163. Butterworth, &c. 1817.

The unfavourable statements which had been published, relative to the conduct of the Wesleyan missionaries in the West Indies, induced the "Managing Committee" of those missions in London to address certain queries to such missionaries as were now in England, after having resided several years in the islands, or were still actually pursuing their pious labours in that part of the world. The Defence before us is founded on the answers which were returned to those queries; and some of the replies throw considerable light on the moral state of the negroes in the West Indies. This state, except where the slaves have been instructed by the missionaries, seems to be one of the most abject degradation: the grossest ignorance and depravity appear every where to prevail; and, though slavery is a soil in which little virtue can be expected to grow, it seems certain that the slaves, who have been instructed by the missionaries, are in general, in a moral view, very superior to those on whom that instruction has not been bestowed. The untaught negroes are described by the missionaries as habitually addicted to lying, theft, and sloth; in which we may recognize the characteristic features of slavery in every clime.

It is also stated that the intercourse between the sexes is in a great degree promiscuous; marriage is almost unknown; and an indefinite polygamy prevails. Mr. Gilgrass, one of the missionaries, says; 'Marriage does not exist among the slaves not instructed by missionaries. They herd together like the cattle of the field without any ceremony, when both are willing. Some live together many years, others soon part, and each chooses a new companion,' p. 29. The missionaries uniformly introduced the institution of marriage among the slaves; and would not suffer polygamy among any of their converts. If the missionaries did no more than this, they are surely intitled to our approbation; for what moral reform can take place where the sanctity of marriage is despised?

The Sabbath, which was designed as a day of rest for both man and beast, scarcely procures any respite from toil for the negroes in the British West Indies. Mr. Fish, who passed many years in Jamaica, says, 'Sunday is chiefly spent by the field-negroes in working their own grounds, which is the source from whence they derive their food; or in bringing what little spare produce they may

may have to market; for Sunday is the grand public market-day throughout the West Indies,' p. 59. Again; Mr. Gilgrass (p. 60.) states the following as the general mode of spending the Sabbath in Jamaica. 'The slaves turn out to pick grass for the horses, mules, oxen, sheep, &c. There is no hay made in the islands, the grass they pick any where upon the estate, both morning and night throughout the year. After breakfast, a driver, with an overseer, accompanies the slaves to the negro grounds, given to them in lieu of allowance from the master; here they spend the blessed Sabbath, toiling hard all day. This is their rest. The second Sabbath these slaves carry to market their provisions to sell. In Jamaica some of them travel with heavy loads upon their heads, five, ten, fifteen, or twenty miles.'

Notwithstanding the obstructions, which the benevolent labours of the Wesleyan missionaries have experienced in the West Indies, and particularly in Jamaica, it is calculated that they have communicated some knowlege of the salutary truths of the Gospel to more than one hundred thousand negroes and people of colour, in the different islands which they have visited. It is devoutly to be hoped that, at some future period, slavery may be totally abolished in the West Indies: but what can better pave the way for the peaceable accomplishment of this desirable object, than the intellectual and moral culture of those who are to be made free?

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 25. *Macbeth and King Richard III.*: an Essay, in Answer to Remarks on some of the Characters of Shakspeare. By J. P. Kemble. Crown 8vo. pp. 171. 8s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1817.

In 1785, William Whately, Esq. published his *Remarks on some of the Characters of Shakspeare*; which, in the cases of Macbeth and Richard, have been considered as at variance with the conception formed of those characters by the celebrated and classical actor who here vindicates his own method of expression. An *Answer* to the Remarks was indeed published long ago: but, as Mr. Steevens, in his edition of Shakspeare in 1803, has rather taken part with the remarker than with the answerer, it has been deemed expedient once more to strengthen the extant defence. This has been tastefully, and, as many will think, convincingly, accomplished by Mr. Kemble in the pages before us, which are gratefully inscribed to the late Duke of Northumberland.

We extract the summing up of the dispute:

'Macbeth and Richard are, both, as intrepid as man can be; yet it may be said of each, without any diminution of that praise, that he is sometimes terror-struck at the recollection of his crimes. The characters that Shakspeare draws are human creatures; and however their peculiarities may individuate them, yet they are always connected with the general nature of man by some fine link of universal interest, and by some passion to which they are liable in common with their kind. On the eve of the battle that

is to decide his doom, Richard acknowledges a conscience: bold in supernatural assurances of security from all peril, Mabeth sighs for the protection of his former popularity.

'Ambition is the sole impulse that directs every action of Richard's life: his heart, in which every malignant and violent passion reigns uncontrolled, is hardened in wickedness: his mind is sunk into that depth of hopeless depravity, where the bad believe all other men to be as abandoned as themselves: he attains the crown by hypocrisy habitual to him, and by murders, that entail no remorse on the stern valour with which he maintains his ill-acquired sovereignty. Ambition is implanted in the nature of Macbeth; but it is a blameless ambition:

> '* * * Thou would'st be great;
> Art not without ambition, but without
> The illness should attend it. What thou would'st highly,
> That would'st thou holily; would'st not play false,
> And yet would'st wrongly win. *Macbeth*, Act i. sc. 5.

'The predictions of the witches enflame him with the expectation of a crown, and the daring impatience of his wife determines him "to catch the nearest way" to it. Ambition, inordinate and lawless, now becomes the predominant motive of his actions; but it is not the single characteristic of his mind; his original sense of right and justice still holds possession there, continually to renew the remembrance of what he was, and sharpen all the stings of self-condemnation.

'The character of Richard is simple; that of Macbeth is mixed: Richard is only intrepid: Macbeth, intrepid and feeling. Richard's crimes are the suggestions of his own disposition, originally bad, and at last confirmed in evil; he knows no "compunctious visitings of nature;" alive only to the exigencies of his situation, he is always at full leisure to display his valour. Macbeth is driven into guilt by the instigations of others; his early principles of virtue are not extinct in him; distracted by remorse, he forgets the approach of danger in the contemplation of his crimes; and never recurs to his valour for support, till the presence of the enemy rouses his whole soul, and conscience is repelled by the necessity for exertion.

'It is now shown, that Macbeth has a just right to the reputation of intrepidity; that he feels no personal fear of Banquo and Macduff; and that he meets equal, if not superior, trials of fortitude, as calmly as Richard: it may, therefore, be presumed, that no future critic or commentator, in his observations on Shakspeare, will ascribe either the virtuous scruples of Macbeth, or his remorseful agonies, to so mean a cause as constitutional timidity. If so mistaken a persuasion could prevail, it would entirely counteract the salutary effect of the finest tragedy that has ever been written, and defeat the moral purpose to which, in every age, the stage has been indebted for the favour and the works of wise and virtuous men, and the protection and support of all good governments.'

Mr. Mason,

Mr. Mason, the author of a treatise on Ornamental Gardening, published many years ago a parallel between the character of Macbeth and that of Richard, which may be supposed to have given rise to the opposite points of view in which this controversy originates.

Art. 26. *Petition and Memoir addressed to the Chamber of Peers of France.* By Lord Kinnaird. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway.

Art. 27. *A Letter to the Duke of Wellington, on the Arrest of M. Marinet.* By Lord Kinnaird. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1818.

Lord Kinnaird may well, we think, be indignant at the want of faith of the French government in arresting M. Marinet, and at the Duke of Wellington's abandonment of a cause in which not only he was so much interested, but his word for the safety of the man was so clearly given. His Lordship makes manly appeals both to the Chamber of Peers and to the Duke; and, from the inefficacy of each, he will learn the important but degrading lesson, that there is a wide distinction between the personal and the political character of men, and that he must never trust to ministerial faith without written documents to bind it.

Art. 28. *Errors of Pronunciation,* and improper Expressions, used frequently and chiefly by the Inhabitants of London. To which are added, those in similar Use chiefly by the Inhabitants of Paris. Crown 8vo. pp. 72. 3s. 6d. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1817.

The inhabitants of London have always had much to bear in the way of ridicule for their mispronunciations and improper expressions, while provincial errors of the same nature (which are often as flagrant) are passed over in comparative silence. A partiality, perhaps, to the place of our literary nativity induces us to account for this inequitable distribution of censure, by supposing that the latter are too marked and universal to require notice, while it is in the nature of man to observe and to criticize that which approaches to eminence, and pretends to form itself on the best model; — so that in London, which is the centre of the best society, and consequently contains the truest standard, the slightest discrepancy must be more prominent and observable. Another cause may be that London being visited by all, and the subject of general conversation, all know or pretend to know its faults, while those of each county can be but partially understood. Be this, however, as it may, if the present author has exhausted his subject, the Londoners have not to answer for so much as some people may suppose; since, though one half of the book is appropriated to the exposure of alleged Parisian errors, and the other half contains much that is not legitimately introduced, still a very thin volume is produced. The writer is so strict a champion for correctness that he would not permit any ironical expressions, and declares that it is very wrong to use the word *fine* to express a contrary meaning, as, "you are a fine fellow," &c. Neither would he allow a metaphorical phrase; and accordingly "*half an eye, — I saw it with half an eye,*" — is excluded as a 'ridiculous expres-

expression.' He may not, perhaps, be aware, when he complains of the pronunciation of *Brummagem* for Birmingham, that the latter is itself a corruption, the name being correctly *Bromwich-ham.*

Of the French division we cannot so well judge, not being thoroughly acquainted with the familiar dialogue of the class of French people that is most likely to commit sins of this description: but we have no doubt that an English learner of French, or visitor of France, may be much benefited by consulting this manual. Indeed, we think also that equal utility might be derived by our countrymen, of the middling classes, from attention to the former part of this little volume: the author of which is an exact and qualified observer, though, as we have already said, perhaps rather too rigid; and though he may sometimes be caught tripping against his own rules. Thus, he properly exposes the tautological expression *from whence,* (p. 36.) yet almost immediately afterward (p. 38.) uses it himself.

Art. 29. *A Letter to Frankland Lewis,* Esq. M. P., on Commutation of Tithes. By the Rev. John Fisher, Rector of Wavendon. 8vo. Pamph. Rivingtons. 1817.

Mr. Fisher seems to think that no mode of commuting tithes can be devised, which will not be highly injurious to the ecclesiastical establishment. He even objects to an allotment of land in lieu of them; and the only alleviation of the evils of the present system, which he is willing to admit, is that which would render compositions for tithe 'more certain and permanent than they can be under the existing law, by power of granting leases of greater extent.' 'There can,' he says, 'under such protection or provision, remain no more check upon the spirit of agricultural improvement from tithes, than under the lease of a farm from the proprietor of the land. In both cases the joint-tenant may have co-existent leases, and the interests of the joint-proprietors may go hand in hand; or, more to simplify the contract between landlord and tenant, the landlord may become the lessee of the tithes, which will enable him to let his land altogether unencumbered.'

Tithes are certainly *most pernicious where they are exacted in kind;* and any legislative provision, which should be made to prevent that exaction, would be so far a great benefit to the agricultural interest of the kingdom: but, though we should deem the universal leasing of the tithe of the country much preferable to the present uncertain and often most oppressive mode of collecting them, we are still of opinion that the tithing system will be always liable to great objections, under whatever form it may exist. It will always be an invidious mode of providing for the clergy. Though the amount may be paid in a rent fixed for a certain term, instead of a sum varying annually according to contingencies, or in money instead of produce, still the difference in the mode of the payment would not remove the main objections to the imposition of such a tax on the industry of the community.

Art.

Art. 30. *Important Trifles:* chiefly appropriated to Females on their Entrance into Society. By Emma Parker, Author of "Self-Deception," "The Guerrilla Chief," &c. 12mo. pp. 225. 5s. Boards. Egerton. 1817.

These essays are too short, or at least too inconclusive, to become 'important' to young ladies; and Miss Parker seems to have allowed neither time nor room for discussing any of the subjects which she proposes: — to some she allots but a page and a half, and leaves both her opinion and her counsel ambiguous. — In the paper 'upon trifling Occupations,' she observes that 'there are innumerable elegant accomplishments' which she would recommend to her young readers: but, instead of naming any of them, she gives only a specification of such employments as she reprobates. We would add also, that religious motives are not duly suggested in these crude and deficient essays; though we must still allow them to contain some candid and sensible observations.

Art. 31. *Some Philological Remarks concerning Beauty.* By David Prentice. 8vo. pp. 32. Glasgow. 1817.

We think that the term *Beauty* is erroneously derived by the author of this little work from the Latin verb *beare*, to bless; since we should rather suppose it to be the substantive of the Latin adjective *bellus*, of which the primary meaning seems to be nice, dainty, delicious to the palate. In Greek, καλος comes from κηλαος, splendid, as in German *schön* signifies that which shines. From any one of the senses, the radical idea of beauty can be taken; and the limitation of it to the higher degrees of gratification, to excellent delight, is a subsequent natural step in the progressive refinement of language.

Mr. Burke would separate the beautiful from the sublime, and other writers would separate it from the ludicrous and from the pathetic: but, in our judgment, in comparing two sublime mountain-scenes of nature, in actual existence or on the canvas of Salvator Rosa, it would be allowable to call the more impressive landscape the most beautiful of the two; and so likewise in comparing two comic scenes of Moliere and Sheridan, or two tragic scenes of Sophocles and Euripides. The beautiful may include the sublime, the ludicrous, or the pathetic, and is in fact only another word for the excellent. The same perfection, contemplated with a view to comparison, is excellence, and, contemplated with a view to admiration, is beauty. Taste is the art of discriminating delicate gradations of goodness; and it is only to merit above the average that it awards the designation of beautiful.

Among the Germans, Wolf and Sulzer have written well concerning beauty; among the French, Marmontel and Diderot: in our own country, Burke, Hogarth, Reynolds, and the late Dr. Sayers, to say nothing of living authors: — but, as the admirable disquisition of the last-mentioned writer is too little known, and has not been cited by Mr. Prentice in his somewhat

what showy annotations, we shall transcribe from it a few paragraphs.

"It will readily be granted that those objects, which we are accustomed to call beautiful, make a pleasing impression on the mind; but the mere pleasure of simple perception seems by no means to account for the great degree of enjoyment which the contemplation of certain objects produces; for however the palate may be gratified by particular dishes, the eye by a peculiar tint, or the sense of smelling by odoriferous substances, yet it is certain that the view of a beautiful object occasions in us much more exquisite feelings of pleasure than the most delicious food, the most brilliant color, or the most grateful perfume: we must therefore seek for some other cause of this peculiar sensation of delight; this cause will be found in the association of ideas: with the forms which we esteem beautiful, it will appear that certain pleasing ideas or emotions are associated in our mind, which upon the presentation of such forms regularly arise, and produce those sensations which we attribute to the beauty of the object. The power, then, which an object possesses, of exciting pleasing ideas or emotions associated with it, is what determines us to ascribe to it beauty."

After having evolved and exemplified this theory, the Doctor proceeds to inquire concerning the standard of beauty, and thus sums up his investigation:

"Hence then it follows, that the individual of a class of objects is justly to be esteemed more beautiful than the rest, with the whole of which, or with its component parts, when properly understood, the greater number of the excellences of its class are universally associated; the same may be asserted of any species of objects when compared with any other species of its kind, and that object may be justly esteemed a standard of beauty, with the whole appearance, or with the component parts of which, when properly understood, all the excellences of its kind are universally associated."

Mr. Prentice has quoted the expanded but not precise dissertations of Mr. Stewart and Mr. Knight, and has criticized without ceremony the superior investigations of Mr. Alison; but he has not, as far as we perceive, added any thing to the extant mass of knowlege concerning this exhausted topic. We will make a short extract, which will suffice to exemplify his manner.

'The attainment of taste in literary composition is still more difficult than in painting. There are extremely few who qualify themselves to judge of excellence; and not a great many are able to discriminate between mediocrity and what is positively bad. Hence we may infer the nature of popular decisions concerning books. The voice of the people, it must be owned, is not in this respect an expression of truth. A great majority of mankind are as willing to echo the edicts of the rich about works of art, as to follow their fashions in furniture and dress. Now as the rich have no monopoly of learning and ability, but are rather disfranchised of those privileges, their taste must be considerably

obnoxious to imposture and caprice. A sagacious bookseller may palm upon them a work under the name of a famous author. They take the bait, laud the performance, and when the deception is exposed, their vanity is interested in persisting in the praise. Again the bookseller may assail them through some Review; though perhaps this method of administering admiration is more potent with the poorer orders. After all, caprice probably does more than trick; and the casual association of a leader in the polite circles is often the only cause of celebrity. The book to be sure which acquires popularity like a bonnet, loses it at the end of the season like a bonnet also; but nevertheless the temporary admiration which it obtains must have the effect of aggravating the perversion of public taste; for, if we admire mediocrity, what should follow but that we imitate it; and as imitation never keeps up to the model, the result is a progressive decay in the works of art.'

Art. 32. *Tales at the Fire Side;* or A Father's and Mother's Stories. By Miss Emily Clark, Grand-Daughter of the Unfortunate Colonel Frederick, and Author of "The Banks of the Douro," "Poems," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1817.

Those fathers and mothers who expect to find these stories particularly calculated for the instruction of their daughters will be disappointed; since the tales are uninteresting and of a very hacknied cast, and in various instances the language is incorrect. In vol. ii. p. 14. it is said that 'Miss Dubbs was dressed *very fine and tawdry.*' P. 55., 'Ninon told him how *cruel* Madame de Clemence *had behaved* to her young lady, and *very unkind* to herself.' In the third volume, at page 173., Lord Mowbray is made to perform rather an extraordinary feat; since, after the loss of his arm, he is represented as driving Julia in his curricle, 'with so much caution that it gave every feeling mind real satisfaction at viewing his tender affection!'—*Caution*, indeed, may be exercised in driving a curricle with one hand, but not much skill can be so displayed, or safety insured under such circumstances.

Art. 33. *A short Account of the Plan adopted at Dorking, Surrey, for establishing a Provident Institution for the Relief of the Poor during the Winter Season;* shewing the Success of an Experiment to ascertain the Practicability and Advantage of engaging the Poor in Measures conducive to their own Support. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1817.

Art. 34. *An Explanation of the Principles and Proceedings of the Provident Institution at Bath for Savings.* By John Haygarth, M.D. F.R.S. and F.R.S. Ed. one of the Managers. To which are added the Depositor's Book, with the Regulations, Tables, &c.; the Bye-Laws; an Account of the Mode of transacting the Business; and the First Year's Report. 8vo. pp. 116. Longman and Co.

Art.

Art. 35. *An Account of the York Saving Bank*, instituted June 1816. Drawn up and published at the Request of the Directors, by S. W. Nicoll, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Co. 1817.

Every endeavour to teach the poor the wisdom of the Ant should be seriously encouraged, and every successful experiment for that purpose should be hailed as a national benefit; not merely as conferring on them actual present advantages, but as contributing most essentially and in various ways to their permanent welfare and the improvement of their character. From the Saving Banks, or Provident Institutions, which have been lately introduced, we anticipate much good; and we look forwards with confidence to the effect which they will produce among the lower classes, if they be kept up. They are now very general, and we have no doubt that they will be still more widely extended. The system can be so easily explained to the most illiterate,—the reason of it, when stated with simplicity, must stare them so directly in the face,—its benefits are so palpable,—and its security is so evident,—that the obstinate, the prejudiced, and the dull will soon follow their more judicious brethren, and determine at last to be as wise as their neighbours. They thatch the roof and repair the walls of their cottage in the summer to keep out the winter's storm, and they lay in their stock of potatoes for their winter's food, well knowing that the rainy day will come, and that potatoes grow only in *summer*. Will they not see that old age may also come as well as winter, and that they can work and earn only in the summer of their days? What, then, follows? That, out of their earnings in youth, they should lay up all that is not required for their present support, in order to provide for those rainy days, in which they may be prevented by age or by sickness from exerting themselves for their warmth and their sustenance. What individual, too, who has once felt the delights of independence, will not then prefer the comforts which he himself has earned, to those which he purchases (even if similar in extent) with the discreditable pittance received from the grudging hand of the parish-overseer? The plan of laying out the money in the funds, and making each depositor a stockholder, (for the suggestion of which Dr. Haygarth claims the merit,) is a great improvement on the original system; and the government-debentures which have been since substituted, though they give less interest, take away all risk and uncertainty. Thus every objection that could be raised against the responsibilty of this or that trustee is entirely removed; and many persons must have been induced to make their deposit, by being satisfied that the return of their money did not depend on individual but on national credit.

The Dorking Provident Institution does not properly come within these remarks, being confined to the grant of temporary relief during a hard winter: but the principle is the same; and it exhibits, "*in little*," the benefits to be derived from the more extended plan, giving the poor a foretaste of the advantage of contributing in the time of plenty towards their own support

when scarcity arrives. We recommend the pamphlet as a guide to those who may wish to introduce a similar plan into the parishes in which they reside.

The other two pamphlets are both good, but both too long; — indeed, we think that in general the regulations are too diffuse. They should be made as simple, and stated in as few words, as the case will admit; because otherwise the poor, to whom they are addressed, will be puzzled, and where they are puzzled they will not be led.

Art. 36. *The Beauties of Owen Felltham,* selected from his *Resolves.* By J. A. 12mo. pp. 93. Hodson. 1818.

In our liid vol. N. S. p. 330., we mentioned a new edition of Mr. Felltham's *Resolves,* and gave a sufficient character of them. From the preface to the present selection, it does not appear that the editor was aware of that recent republication of the original work, since he regards it as 'long since consigned to neglect, if not to oblivion.' He speaks of it, however, with just praise, and adds: 'It has been the amusement of a few leisure hours to collect the most instructive as well as beautiful passages, and by bringing them into a more modern and compendious form, to endeavour to render them more useful. I have been induced to offer them to the public from the pleasure and satisfaction I have myself derived from them; and I think to many, particularly to youthful readers, they may, if attended to, prove an invaluable treasure.'

As it is probable that no great attention has been re-excited towards old Owen, whose lucubrations first appeared in 1661, and as we did not, in the article above quoted, make any extract from them, we may now give a brief sample of them; with the hope of aiding the present editor's laudable design in forming his selection.

'*The virtuous Man is a Wonder.*

'That fire must be of an unusual composition that is made to burn in water, and so must his temper be that can remain unsullied, and retain its brightness, though encompassed with corruption's waves. — When the handsome courtezan Theodata vaunted to Socrates how much she was to be esteemed before him, because she could gain many proselytes from him, but he none from her, he replied, that it was no wonder, for she led them down the easy and descending road of vice, while he compelled them to the thorny and ascending path of virtue. — Virtue dwells at the head of the river, to which we cannot get but by rowing against the current: he that walks through a large field hath only a narrow path to guide him right in the way; but on either side there is wide room to wander in: what latitude can bound a prophane wit, or a lascivious fancy? — the loose tongue hazards all, while the virtuous man sets a watch on his lips, and examines all his language ere it passes.

'Every virtue hath two vices that close her up in curious limits, and if she swerve ever so little she steps into error: — Religion hath superstition and prophaneness — Fortitude, fear and rashness — Liberality, avarice and prodigality — Justice, rigour and partiality

tibility — and so in others; which has occasioned some to define virtue to be a medium between two extremes. — Virtue is in truth a war, wherein a man must be perpetual centinel, — 'Tis an obelisk, which though founded in the earth, hath a spire which reaches to heaven — like the palm-tree, though it hath pleasant fruit it is hard to come at it, for the stem is not easy to climb.

'Though surrounded with difficulties, the virtuous man hath a star within, that guides, and shoots its rays of comfort: he hath found the true philosopher's stone, that can unalchymy the alloy of life, and by a certain celestial process can turn all the brass of this world into gold.'

Twenty-five selections, under as many different heads, moral and pious, form this small volume.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 37. *Reflections on the sudden Death of a young Minister:* a Funeral Discourse for the late Reverend Thomas Biggin Broadbent, M. A.; who died at Latchford, near Warrington, November the 9th, 1817, in the twenty-fifth Year of his Age. Delivered at Essex-Street Chapel, November 22. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. Hunter.

Mr. Broadbent, whose premature death is here earnestly deplored, appears to have been a young man of considerable industry and respectable abilities; and, as his mental endowments were united with exemplary regularity of conduct, great expectations were entertained of his future usefulness in the sacred profession which he had embraced. It was anxiously hoped, indeed, that he would be "a shining light" among the teachers of the Unitarian Christians: — but these expectations were not to be realized, and these hopes were indulged in vain, Mr. Broadbent being suddenly carried off by a fit of apoplexy. Mr. Belsham has converted the decease of this promising young man into a topic of affecting admonition, speaks solace to the afflicted, and makes the sudden and abrupt dissolution of virtue and intelligence an argument for the credibility of a future existence.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Hewlett's second letter is received, but the absence of a coadjutor prevents us, at present, from making any observations on it.

We will inquire for the work to which *X. Y.* directs our special attention.

The fault of which *J. G.* feelingly and justly complains is not cognizable by us; at least, we fear that no effort of our pens would tend to remedy it; — and we must be excused from printing his letter.

*** In the last APPENDIX, which was published with the Number for May, p. vi., *Table of Contents*, line 1, for p. 325, read p. 532.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1818.

ART. I. *Account of a Voyage of Discovery to the West Coast of Corea, and the Great Loo-Choo Island;* with an Appendix, containing Charts, and various Hydrographical and Scientific Notices. By Captain Basil Hall, Royal Navy, F.R.S. Lond. & Edin., Member of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta, of the Literary Society of Bombay, and of the Society of Arts and Sciences at Batavia. And a Vocabulary of the Loo-Choo Language, by H. J. Clifford, Esq. Lieutenant, Royal Navy. 4to. With 15 Plates. 2l. 2s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

WHEN we lately reviewed Mr. Ellis's Narrative of the Embassy to China, and Mr. M'Leod's Account of the Voyage, we mentioned our expectations of the present work.* We now find that the author of it, omitting all digressions relative to that political mission and its results, confines himself to his own observations on certain countries and people, which, previously to the brief report of some of them by Mr. M'Leod, were little if at all known to European navigators.

Captain Hall has divided his volume into two distinct portions; the former containing an entertaining detail of the voyage, and consequently adapted for the amusement of the general reader; the latter including, in an Appendix, the nautical observations, which were the main object of the expedition, and which possess a character that will interest only the scientific and professional inquirer. This mode of distribution seems equally favourable to both parties, because neither the one nor the other need be interrupted in the pursuit of their own specific purpose. We will attempt to obtain the same end by the same means.

The time allowed for Captain Hall's survey of Western Corea, and the Loo-Choo Islands, proved wholly inadequate to an investigation of which the extent was altogether unforeseen. The eastern side of the Yellow Sea is studded with such innumerable clusters of islands, as to exceed in number

* See M. Rev. for January and February last.

any other known archipelago on the globe: but the period allotted for the survey of so intricate a coast was confined to the probable return of the Embassy to Canton, from their landing at the mouth of the Pei-ho river; that is, a space of little more than two months. The record of occurrences is preserved in the form of a journal, commencing from September 1. 1816, when, the Alceste and the Lyra being in company, the land of Corea was first distinguished. It was on this day that they anchored near to one of the islands off that coast, and had their first interview with the natives, some of whom went off in a boat, but would not come alongside of the ship: they did not, however, shew any signs of alarm, even when some of the English landed; at first, they expressed marks of surprize at observing the nature of our clothing, but afterward took very little notice of any thing. Their chief anxiety was to get rid of their visitors, which they expressed by signs far from unintelligible, although not in a hostile manner. A Chinese who accompanied Captain Hall was of no use, because he could not read what the Coreans wrote, nor comprehend a word of their spoken tongue. From an eminence in returning, the party had the view of a village, without being perceived by the natives. The women were employed in beating rice in wooden mortars, their children were tied to their backs, and it appeared that their feet were not cramped as in China: on seeing one of the ship's boats push round a head-land, they all fled to their huts. The visitors afterward examined the village, which is described as consisting of about forty houses, rudely constructed of reeds plaistered with mud, the roofs being of all shapes, and badly thatched; they were not disposed in streets, and had heaps of mud and pools of water in the spaces between them. The valley was nevertheless picturesque, and had no inconsiderable share of cultivated land attached to it. The natives evinced a sort of proud behaviour, and an absence of curiosity perfectly astonishing. This groupe will in future bear the name of Sir James Hall, the President of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

On the third of September, the voyagers sailed among a range of islands extending as far as the eye could reach; and at one of them they went round in their boats to a small bay, where they found a good landing. The natives addressed many long speeches to them, and were in return equally edified by harangues of similar length in the English tongue: but, as these arguments produced little conviction, the former had recourse to signs, drawing their fans across their throats, and sometimes across those of the English; an act which appeared

to

to imply that both parties would suffer from some superior power if the strangers persisted in examining the country.

'The dress of these people is a loose white robe, cloth shoes, and a few wear the broad hats so often described; by most the hair is tied in a high conical knot on the top of the head, but by others it is allowed to fly loose, so as to give them a wild appearance. Some confine the short hair by a small gauze band with a star on one side, forming, along with the top knot, rather a becoming head-dress. Their beards and whiskers, which, apparently, had never been cut, and their fans and long tobacco-pipes, and their strange language and manners, gave a grotesque air to the whole group, which it is impossible to describe.'

The natives were not so surly as those of Sir J. Hall's groupe: but the recommendation of "speeding the parting guest" was one which they seemed well to comprehend, as they took the hands of the officers and helped them over the slippery beach on their departure, with a civility which required no comment; and, on perceiving one of the boats aground, they jumped into the water to push her off. — On the following day, the ships anchored in a bay, skirted by large villages built among trees, and surrounded by cultivated lands, which gave a considerable air of beauty to the scene. The Captains immediately rowed towards the shore: boats soon crowded round them, filled with people, and ornamented with numerous flags and streamers; and on board of one of them a large blue umbrella was observed, which led to the just supposition that it conveyed a person of rank.

'On coming closer, we saw a fine patriarchal figure seated under the umbrella; his full white beard covered his breast, and reached below his middle; his robe or mantle, which was of blue silk, and of an immense size, flowed about him in a magnificent style. His sword was suspended from his waist by a small belt, but the insignia of his office appeared to be a slender black rod tipped with silver, about a foot and a half long, with a small leather thong at one end, and a piece of black crape tied to the other; this he held in his hand. His hat exceeded in breadth of brim any thing we had yet met with, being, as we supposed, nearly three feet across.'

When the English expressed by signs to this venerable gentleman their wish to land, he employed similar motions as indicative of his own desire to go to the ships, and they accordingly rowed to the Lyra, which was nearest to the shore. The old man was so encumbered with his robes that it was not easy for him to get up the ship's side: but no sooner was he on board than the natives mounted the vessel with much more facility in every part. He was entertained during this first visit on the deck, sitting on his own mat; and, when a

little composed, he began a long oration, which he was suffered to continue without interruption, until he paused for a reply. It must have required some command of feature in the Captain to have made a speech with equal gravity in English, which he did in due form, and with equal unintelligibility. The chief, who was much embarrassed at this (to him) unexpected difficulty, next thought of the expedient of dictating a letter to his secretary; and, on finding this also useless, his mortification was extreme. *

'The persons forming the suite of the Chief were dressed nearly in the same manner as himself, excepting that their robes were white, and did not contain such a profusion of cloth. They wore the large hats and wide trowsers tied above the ancle, with cotton shoes turned up a little at the toe. The immediate attendants, who seemed also to be soldiers, were differently clothed: over a loose pink frock with wide sleeves, they have another which fits closer, and is without sleeves, the corners being tucked up, like the skirts of some military uniforms. Their hat is a broad flat cone made of thick grass, the under part being embossed with different coloured silks, and from a gilt ornament on the peak there hangs a tassel made of peacock's feathers, and another of hair dyed red: some are armed with bows and arrows, others with only a straight sword, having no guard for the hand. A coarse frock without sleeves, and trowsers, or rather drawers, covering the thigh, are worn by the lower orders.'

When the old man had returned to his boat, and was seated under his umbrella, he remained alongside without making any signs to explain his wishes; at length it was suggested that he expected a visit in return, and this was his probable intention: the officers accordingly proceeded to pay their respects to him in his own boat, at which he seemed well pleased, although it was necessary to send for a bottle of wine, and give it to him, in order that he might have the means of entertaining his guests. It was supposed that, as it was now evening, he would have returned to the shore: but his politeness, says the author, was under-rated, for he immediately steered for the Alceste; where he again opened the business by dictating a letter to his secretary, which was presented in form to Captain Maxwell, and was afterward thus translated at Canton, by Mr. Morrison: — "Persons of what land — of what nation? on account of what business do you come hither? In the ship are there any literary men who can ex-

* It appears that in China, Japan, Corea, &c. the spoken languages vary, but that the written language is the same in them and in their adjacent isles: a fact which, when known, removes the apparent absurdity of the Corean chief's resource when his words had proved unintelligible.

plain what is written?" Captain Maxwell returned a paper in English, expressing his ignorance of the chief's wishes, with similar forms: but the Corean secretary, who looked over him while he was writing it, was severely reprimanded for that intrusion by his master.

This Chief appeared testy and impatient with his own people, but much pleased with the attentions offered to him by the English, and liked our tea and cherry-brandy exceedingly. On a subsequent visit, he shewed great curiosity, which was unusual in some of the other islanders, and even consented to forego the dignity of his enormous state-hat, for the purpose of examining the ship between the decks. As no invitation to the shore had ever been given, the officers at length determined to take that kind of permission, in which our neighbours the French are proverbially said to indulge; and, under pretence of compliment, they accompanied him thither, when a singular scene occurred. The old man had hitherto been cheerful and familiar: but no sooner did Captain Maxwell evince a desire of approaching the village, than all his gaiety fled, he shed tears, held his head down, and drew his hand across his throat as if to signify that his head would be cut off. Nothing could reconcile him to the landing; his anxiety increased to a great height; and the attempts to re-assure him, when the crew returned to their boats, not having been an hour on the shore, nor twenty yards from the landing-place, had proved wholly ineffectual. It is impossible to ascertain exactly the causes of the old Chief's apprehensions; although it would seem that he acted under some government, which exercised as strict a vigilance as the Japanese in the exclusion of foreigners: his fate is, of course, involved in an uncertainty which was painful to those who had entertained him.

Our countrymen afterward landed on the shore of some other islands in this archipelago, but the villages were uniformly deserted by the inhabitants before the *intruders* reached them: frequently, above a hundred islands were in sight from the deck at the same moment; and some observation of the occupations of the inhabitants was obtained by telescopes: but their wish to avoid all intercourse on shore proved universal.

We now pass over all intervening occurrences, until the voyagers arrived off the truly interesting Loo-Choo island peopled with a race of happy inhabitants, who from the concurrence of all accounts of this visit, appear to realize the fondest expectations that could be formed of civilization without its many concomitant vices, of hospitality unmixed with

rudeness, and of curiosity regulated by a sense of propriety which must be the result of nature rather than of art. This is undoubtedly a high panegyric, but the whole conduct of the people in question seems to justify it without any exception whatever. — Of their civil polity or domestic habits, as they regard the softer sex, little or nothing was made known to our countrymen. Their women were kept from the sight of strangers with the precautions so usual in eastern nations: their towns and villages were sacred from intrusion, and so preserved with the vigilance of all other nations of those seas: their government was probably despotic; and their monarch seemed to be a secluded object of veneration, a being constructed for state-purposes, and entering little into the habits of other men. Notwithstanding all these apparently disadvantageous circumstances, they evinced none of the usual consequences of such a system of civil life. Their domestic authority over their females, whatever it might have been, had not caused them to degenerate into haughty tyrants, for they were affable, generous, and open, to a most extraordinary degree. Nor had their jealousy of strangers made them repulsive, although at first a little suspicious, from natural timidity; on the contrary, they supplied all the wants of their visitors, without accepting any return, and with a liberality bordering on profusion. What is more extraordinary, their government, although probably absolute, had been tempered with such kindness that insolent authority and abject meanness appeared equally unknown; and the bounties of nature, although strong discriminations of rank and opulence were clearly discernible, seemed to have been so far equally distributed that a real state of want was not manifested in the condition of any one individual.

It must be allowed that the opportunities of observing the manners of a people, who were never seen precisely in their usual state of society, were much limited: but the intercourse with them was long and unreserved; their habits were the constant theme of inquiry among a party of sensible and inquisitive men; and we should in consequence be inclined to suppose that, though many errors may exist in any hypotheses formed relative to their degree of civilization and acquirements, or to the nature of their government and state of society, the estimate of their character cannot be subject to any such doubts. — We must refer our readers to the brief account, in our late review of Mr. M'Leod's narrative, of the visit of the Lyra and Alceste to the island, and proceed rather to amplify it by some information drawn from the more

extensive sources now before us, than to recapitulate the general story.

One of the first visits of some natives of rank to the ship presents us with this picture of their exterior appearance:

'Business being over, the chiefs were asked to walk round the cabin, an invitation which they accepted with manifest satisfaction. During the conference they had preserved a gravity suited to an important ceremony, and, though surrounded by new and curious objects, had never expressed the least curiosity. They were now no longer formal, and looked over the various articles with attention, taking particular notice of the globes, books, and mirrors. Their manners are remarkably gentle and unassuming. They are observant, and not without curiosity, but they require encouragement to induce them to come forward, being restrained, it would seem, by a genteel self-denial, from gratifying curiosity, lest it might be thought obtrusive. Their dress is singularly graceful; it consists of a loose flowing robe, with very wide sleeves, tied round the middle by a broad rich belt or girdle of wrought silk, a yellow cylindrical cap, and a neat straw sandal, over a short cotton boot or stocking. Two of the chiefs wore light yellow robes, the other dark blue streaked with white, all of cotton. The cap is flat at top, and appears to be formed by winding a broad band diagonally round a frame, in such a manner, that at each turn a small portion of the last fold shall be visible above in front, and below at the hinder part. The sandal is kept on by a stiff straw band passing over the instep, and joining the sandal near the heel; this band is tied to the forepart by a slight string, drawn between the great toe and the next, the stocking having a division like the finger of a glove for the great toe. They all carry fans, which they stick in their girdles when not in use, and each person has a short tobacco pipe in a small bag, hanging, along with the pouch, at the girdle. When they had satisfied themselves with looking over the cabin, they went away, with a promise of returning in the evening as soon as the answer from the Great Man should arrive.'

On a subsequent day, a party of our countrymen landed on a point at some distance from the town, to observe the sun's meridian altitude with an artificial horizon; and on this occasion they amused the natives by allowing them to look through the telescope of the instruments at two reflected images of the sun. The first who looked started back as if he had seen something supernatural and forbidden; others expressed their astonishment in various ways; while the boys held out their hands for quicksilver, with which they were much delighted. On the return of the English they had a view of the town of Nakapiang, two parts of which were connected by a bridge of one arch built with stone. The coast was formed of coral cliffs scooped out below by the action of the

sea. — Some time had elapsed when they received a visit from a person of apparently high authority; and preparations were made for returning it on shore, where they were introduced into a small temple surrounded by verandahs, and a feast was served up: but we must deny ourselves the pleasure of enumerating the dainties. All proposals, however, of a walk to the town were firmly though politely opposed. — On the 5th of October, an opportunity did occur for examining a small village, of which this description is given:

'This village is surrounded by a close hedge, and every separate house also has an inclosure: some of the houses have attached to them neat arbours, formed of a light frame of bamboo covered with a variety of creepers. The rice fields are divided by small banks of earth, made to retain the water, and along the top of each bank there is a foot-path; the whole valley having much the air of a scene in India. A number of the villagers, accompanied by their children, came out to meet us, but there were no women amongst them: we passed on, as they were evidently averse to our entering the village.

'On our way across the valley we were attracted by the appearance of a cottage, so buried in foliage as to be completely hid from our view till we were within a few paces of the door. It was surrounded by a slight fence of rods, about an inch apart, with a line of creepers along the top, and hanging down on both sides: a wicker gate admitted us, and we entered the house, which we found divided into two apartments, eight feet square, besides a small verandah at one end. The floors, which were made of slips of bamboo, were raised about six inches from the ground, and covered with a straw mat. The walls were five feet high, being neatly wattled with split bamboo, above which rose a pointed thatched roof. It was occupied by an old man, whom we appeared to have disturbed at breakfast, for cups and tea-things were arranged on the floor; he asked us to sit down, and gave us pipes and tea. The little apartment we were in was as neat as any thing we had ever seen: on one side there was a set of shelves, with cups, bowls, and cooking utensils; on the others were hung various implements of husbandry, with hats and various dresses, all clean and in order. Higher up was a sort of loft or garret, formed by bamboo poles, laid horizontally from the top of the walls; on this were placed various tools, nets, and baskets. The fire-place was in the middle of one side, and sunk below the level. On the outside, in the space between the house and the fence, there was a pigeon house and a poultry yard, and close to the little verandah spoken of before, there stood two spinning-wheels of a light and ingenious construction. All round on the outside of the fence, the trees were high and thick; and though the sun was above the hills, the house was completely shaded except at the end, where a small opening admitted the rays into the verandah. We staid some time with the old farmer, trying to express

express our admiration of the simplicity and beauty of his cottage, and then went up the opposite side of the valley.'

An unreserved intercourse with the islanders, amounting almost to a personal friendship with some of them, was shortly the fruit of mutual kindness. Of the place allotted on shore for the use of the sick from the ships, the attention of the natives to them, and the ceremonies which they performed over one man who died, we have spoken in our review of Mr. M'Leod's book. Most of the natives had acquired some English; and Lieutenant Clifford, who was indefatigable in learning their language, became soon a very tolerable adept, so that communications were rendered easy. A man of quality, named Mádera, was most conspicuous for his attempts at improvement, and the generally inquisitive turn of his mind, which tried to ascertain the uses of all things that were subjected to his observation: his success in the acquisition of our language was also most remarkable: his dress had been usually that of a person of ordinary rank, but accident occasionally led to the suspicion of his holding a higher rank in society, which afterward proved to be the fact. What his motives were for this concealment are unknown, but it contributed much to his knowlege of our people and their habits, as he advanced in his acquaintance from the common sailor, through all gradations, to the society of the Captains. — At a dinner given on board to some of the chiefs, they exhibited many of their games and dances, and fell into the European habits of the table with a wonderful degree of facility; and Mádera, when the ship was illuminated, and the sailors were dancing on the upper deck, ran among them, seized one by the shoulders, put him out of the dance, took his place, and kept up the reel with the same spirit and in the same style and step with the seamen themselves.

On the 23d of October, the ships were at length visited by the Prince, son of the King, about whom and all the royal family a profound secrecy had usually been observed: but the curiosity of the visitors was not much relieved on this head during their stay at the island. With the Prince, indeed, they became personally acquainted: but they were informed that, unless they had arrived in the character of ambassadors, the laws would not permit them to see the King; nor did it appear that many of the natives had ever enjoyed that honour. The description of the Prince's person will be found in the following extract:

'The Prince of Loo-choo, whose name is Shang Pung Fwee, and title Pochin Tay Foo, belongs to the highest of the nine orders of chiefs on the islands, the distinction of which rank is a hatchee-

tatchee-matchee of a pink ground, with perpendicular rows of black, yellow, blue, white, and green spots. He was clothed in a robe of light blue silk, lined with silk a shade lighter, over which he wore a girdle richly embossed with flowers of gold and different coloured silks; in other respects his dress was like that of the chiefs. He is about fifty years old, his beard is full and white, and his figure well proportioned. In manners he is genteel and sedate, but occasionally a little awkward, which his retired habits sufficiently account for. Towards the close of his visit, when his reserve had in some degree worn off, we observed him smile for an instant, now and then, with a shrewd expression in his eyes, as if he was observing what was passing more narrowly than we at first suspected. It was thought, too, that in making inquiries about different things on board, he shewed more discrimination than most of those who had preceded him; but, on the whole, there was nothing very interesting in him besides his rank. While he was looking over the books and other things in the cabin, a picture of his majesty King George the Third was shewn to him. As the interpreter was not present, we could not immediately explain who it was intended to represent, till it occurred to us to join our hands and bow to it in the Loo-choo manner: the Prince instantly saw what was meant, and turning towards the picture, made a low and respectful obeisance.'

This visit was returned with much ceremony on the part of the English, who were treated with a sumptuous repast; when more mirth prevailed at some of the inferior tables than at the royal one, which the Prince seemed to enjoy very much.—The time of departure from the coast was now at hand, and the warmth of feeling evinced by this people at the approaching separation from their friends elicited many interesting traits of character. The presents which were offered were received purely as tokens of private friendship, not as gifts of ceremony, and still less as remunerations for supplies; for which latter, although afforded in great profusion, nothing whatever was accepted in payment. The scene of departure is really so affecting, that we deem no apology necessary for inserting a considerable extract:

'Having taken our final leave of the shore, we went to the Alceste, where we found the chiefs in conference with Captain Maxwell, who made each of the chiefs a present of a cut wine glass, which he knew they had long desired to possess. To Ookooma he gave a finely cut tumbler, in a red morocco case. This was much beyond his expectations, and perhaps his wishes, for he appeared to observe the wine glasses of the others with somewhat of a disappointed look. Captain Maxwell perceiving in a moment that Ookooma had set his heart upon a wine glass, opened the case, and placed one inside the tumbler, to Ookooma's great satisfaction.—

'While

'While we were at dinner, Mádera came into the Alceste's cabin for the purpose of asking some questions about the sextant. He had not been aware of our being at dinner, and looked shocked at having intruded; and when invited to sit down, politely, but firmly declined. From the cabin he went to the gun room, to see his friend Mr. Hoppner, the junior lieutenant of the Alceste, with whom he had formed a great friendship. Mr. Hoppner gave him a picture of the Alceste and some other presents; upon which Mádera, who was much affected, said, "To-morrow ship go sea; I go my father house, two day distance: when I see my father, I show him your present, and I tell him, me, Henry Hoppner all same (as) brother," and burst into tears!

'Sunday, 27th of October. — At day-break we unmoored, and the natives, on seeing us take up one of our anchors, thought we were going to get under weigh immediately, and give them the slip, which was not at all intended. This alarm, however, brought the chiefs off in a great hurry; not in a body in their usual formal way, but one by one, in separate canoes. Old Jeema called on board the Lyra on his way to the frigate; he was a good deal agitated, and the tears came into his eyes when I put a ring on his finger. He gave me in return his knife.

'The other chiefs called alongside on their way to the frigate, but went on when I told them that I was just going to the Alceste myself. In the mean time Mádera came on board, with the sextant in his hand; he was in such distress that he scarcely knew what he was about. In this distracted state he sat down to breakfast with us, during which he continued lighting his pipe and smoking as fast as he could; drinking and eating whatever was placed before him. — Before he left the Lyra he gave Mr. Clifford his pipe, tobacco pouch, and a crystal ornament; saying, as he held out the last, "You go Ingeree, you give this to your childs."

'Mr. Clifford gave him a few presents in return, and expressed his anxiety to be considered his friend. Mádera, with the tears streaming down his cheeks, placed his hands several times upon his heart, and cried, "Eedooshee, eedooshee!" My friend, my friend!

'To me he gave a fan and a picture of an old man looking up at the sun, drawn, he said, by himself: he probably meant in his picture some allusion to my usual occupation at the observatory. After he had put off in his boat, he called out, "Ingeree noo choo sibittee yootoosha," I shall ever remember the English people. —

'On going into the cabin, I found the chiefs seated in a row, all very disconsolate, and apparently trying to conceal emotions different, in all probability, from any which they had ever before experienced. Captain Maxwell had made them his parting present, and I therefore gave to each chief some trifle, receiving from them in return, their knives, pipes, pouches, and fans. In the mean time the anchor was hove up, and every thing being ready

ready for making sail, the chiefs rose to take leave. Ookooma wished to say something, but was too much affected to speak, and before they reached their boats they were all in tears.

'Mádera cried bitterly as he shook hands with his numerous friends, who were loading him with presents.

'The chiefs, as well as the people in the numerous canoes which had assembled round the ships, stood up, and continued waving their fans and handkerchiefs till we were beyond the reefs, and could see them no longer.'

Having thus brought to a conclusion the visit of the two gallant Captains and their crews to the Loo-Choo islanders, we will cursorily mention a few observations noted down by the author, before we proceed to the scientific portion of the volume.

The religion appeared to be that of Fo, and was stated to have been introduced about one thousand years ago: but it was not made a matter of general instruction, was carelessly observed, and the bodzes or priests were little respected in society. Polygamy is not allowed as in China, and the King was said to be the only person permitted by law to have concubines. Much of the harder labour was imposed on women; and Captain Hall conjectures that they were habitually secluded, and not merely on account of the visit of the English. With regard to literature, not much could be ascertained. It was said that they had few books, and those mostly in the Chinese language; which none but the upper classes understood when spoken, and of which the peasantry were usually ignorant altogether. Our people saw no coined money, nor any circulating medium of exchange whatever; so that the only mode of purchase was probably by barter: — neither did they behold *any warlike arms, and the natives allowed that they had none:* moreover, — which, if true, is perhaps without a parallel among nations savage or civilized, — they denied that they had '*any knowlege of war, either by experience or tradition.*' No punishment was seen, beyond a look of reprehension, or an admonitory tap with a fan; and domestic dissension appeared to be equally unknown with foreign hostility. The children partook more of the cheerful nature of English schoolboys than of the habits of Chinese mannikins, and were treated with affection and indulgence. No one instance of theft occurred, although the people came on board and went away indiscriminately, and rambled over the whole ship unattended.

The cattle on the island were of a small black breed, and exclusively allotted to agricultural purposes; the horses, of a small slight make, being much used for riding. Hogs, goats, and poultry, with a variety of vegetables, formed the diet of the

the natives: milk was not taken by them as food. Their agriculture generally resembled the system of the Chinese. With regard to manufactures, nothing was accurately ascertained. They said that their silks came from China, but that their cotton-cloths were made on their own islands; and the patterns were frequently not inelegant. Of the population, nothing satisfactory was known: but from the south point of the island to about five miles north of Napakiang, the country was almost covered with villages, the space being about eighteen miles. The north, north-east, and eastern places were thinly inhabited. No instances of personal deformity were seen, nor indications of disease, except some few faces bearing vestiges of the small-pox. — Their manners must be collected from what we have said before: but we may add the cheerful custom, that existed among them, of carrying their dinners about in boxes, and making *pic-nic* parties, in which assemblies they were seen to much advantage.

Such is the picture of these amiable islanders which is here presented to us; and for the entertainment received from it, we return our sincere thanks to the author. So little did the inhabitants seem inclined to traffic, and so few are the exportable commodities which they possess, that it does not seem probable that their island will be shortly re-visited by Europeans; and indeed we should regret that it were, if farther intercourse with the people detracted any thing from this interesting account; or if the character of the English suffered in the estimation of the natives of Loo-Choo, by an acquaintance with any of our countrymen who might observe a less obliging, conciliatory, and friendly line of conduct, than Captains Maxwell, Hall, and their crews, so commendably adopted.

With respect to the contents of the Appendix, we must now be brief. It presents us with a chart of the Gulf of Pe-chee-lee in the Yellow Sea, and a chart of a portion of the western coast of Corea. The land of Corea was seen in this voyage only at a great distance; an examination which, however, with the track sailed, was sufficient to ascertain that it does not extend so far westward by two degrees of longitude as it has hitherto been represented in European charts. It appears, in fact, that the western coast of the island Quelpaert, and the western coast of the peninsula of Corea as far as the latitude of 37 degrees, lie nearly on the same meridian. — Captain Hall has given also a chart of the great Lieou-kieou island, or, as the present voyagers write it, *Loo-Choo*; which he places half a degree to the west of the longitude assigned to it in Captain Broughton's chart. In the general outline of coast

coast round the island, however, we remark a satisfactory agreement with the charts of Captain Broughton and of Captain James Terry. The Appendix moreover contains some accounts of observations, and a short abstract of the Lyra's navigation: together with a description of an instrument called the Dip Sector, invented by Dr. Wollaston some years past, as related in the Philosophical Transactions, by which the depression of the visible horizon may be determined by actual observation; the instrument measuring the arc contained between two opposite points of the horizon and passing through the zenith, the excess of one half of which above 90 degrees is the depression required.

Some geological memoranda are subjoined: but Captain Hall regrets the want of time and opportunity for extensive and elaborate research in this branch of science; in consequence of which, he observes, he has 'nothing of a general or striking nature to offer to the scientific world.' He adds, however, an account of various specimens collected, and remarks that 'the geologist will be struck with the resemblance which the rocks in this remote quarter of the globe bear to those with which he has been familiarly acquainted.'

A copious vocabulary of the Loo-Choo language, by Lieutenant Clifford, concludes the volume. The plates, exclusive of the charts, give coloured views of Sulphur-Island and of Napakiang, representations of several natives of Loo-Choo, &c. &c.

Art. II. *The Æneis of Virgil;* translated by Charles Symmons, D. D., &c.

[*Article concluded from p.* 85.]

We now sit down to close our examination of this classical work; which will assuredly survive many of its more popular contemporaries, and will continue, in much the larger portion of it, to delight the scholar and the general reader when

"The mob of gentlemen, who write with ease,"

shall have vanished as completely from the memory of man, as their prototypes had disappeared in the days of Pope. It is gratifying, indeed, to any possessor of the humblest inheritance in the domains of taste and learning, to be recalled to the strains of the antients in the animated imitation of them by a gifted fellow-countryman; and to perceive that we have yet some few writers and readers among us who are uncorrupted by

by the allurements of a glittering but careless style of poetry: a style which is as fatal to all correctness of design and all consistency of character, as to every grace of language and every charm of versification.

Our previous articles have brought us as far as the ninth book of the Æneid; and the lover of the classics will already anticipate the subject of our selections from that exquisite poem. It is impossible, indeed, to pass over in silence the generally happy version which Dr. Symmons has here presented of the delightful episode of Nisus and Euryalus. After the generous youths have made their offer to carry intelligence to their absent chief through the midnight camp of the enemy, this natural burst of admiration follows:

> 'Hoary and sage, Aletes heard with joy,
> And fervent thus; "Ye guardian Gods of Troy!
> Still, still I see you hovering o'er our state,
> And willing it to know a longer date:
> Since to our youth such noble souls ye give;
> Proud to live glorious, more than fond to live."
> 'Then straining both the youths in his embrace,
> Whilst as he spoke tears trickled down his face,
> "Illustrious Spirits! what rewards can *mate*
> Such noble daring, and deserts so great?
> Your own rich conscience of the glorious deed,
> And the blest gods must give your brightest meed.
> The next to find will be our sovereign's care;
> And the long bounty of his grateful heir."
> "Yes?" cries Ascanius, "for my sire restored,
> By all the gods Assaracus adored;
> By hoary Vesta's venerable shrine;
> Whate'er of fortune or of hope be mine,
> Nisus! I swear into thy lap to pour:
> Give me my father, and I ask no more.
> Bring him, my soul of safety, to my sight,
> With whom all fortunes please, all toils are light,
> And two large bowls of silver, richly wrought,
> By my great sire from sack'd Arisba brought;
> Two tripods, and two talents of pure gold;
> An antique goblet of Sidonian mold,
> The gift of Dido, shall the deed requite."'

We proceed to the remainder of the address, where it turns to Euryalus, and to his reply:

> '"Thee, honour'd boy! in manhood yet unblown,
> Of years near mine, my love shall make its own.
> Here I adopt thee, with my fates to blend:
> Grow with my fortunes, with my power ascend.
> In war, in peace, attendant on my side,
> Thy will shall govern, and thy word shall guide."

To

'To him Euryalus: "No time shall prove
My future deeds less worthy of thy love;
However Fortune, that disposes all,
May crown me with success, or doom my fall.
But one great boon my earnest prayer would gain;
One, without which all other boons were vain.
My mother lives, of Priam's royal blood,
Who, braving for my love the stormy flood,
Scorn'd her dear Phrygia and Acestes' town.
Her, with my dubious enterprise unknown,
I leave defrauded of a son's caress:
For, ah! be witness all, I here confess
My firmness cannot stand a mother's fond distress.
O comfort her! and, if to bleed my fate,
Respect, and cheer her solitary state!
Promise but this! and let me seek the foe,
Nerv'd by the assurance for the stronger blow."
'With instant sympathy each bosom glow'd:
From every eye the tear of nature flow'd.
But young Iülus, touch'd beyond the rest,
Felt all the pious son within his breast,
And cried; "All all to worth like thine I owe;
And all, conceded to thy heart, I vow.
Thy mother shall be mine: Creüsa's name
Alone deficient to the perfect claim.
Be with whate'er event thy daring crown'd,
She who bore thee shall ever be renown'd.
Yes! by my own, and by my father's head,
(That oath which binds us with religious dread,)
I swear; whate'er I promise should'st thou live,
That to thy mother and thy race to give."'

We shall continue to make such selections and to refer to such passages as we particularly approve, without any interruption in the way of verbal or other objection; reserving our *vituperative* criticisms to the conclusion of our panegyric:—not, however, with the intention of so dismissing our readers, or those of Dr. Symmons: but purposing finally to remark on his preface and notes, and certainly with a very large proportion of commendation. "*Sunt et sua præmia laudi!*" and, if *laudari à laudato* be inspiring and grateful to the highest degree, *laudare laudabilem* has its pleasure and its reward.

Volscens has drawn his sword, and is threatening his captive with death:

'Then Nisus, first alarm'd and wild with fright,
Unable to sustain the rending sight,
Bursts from his ambush, and exclaims aloud:
'"Me! me, Rutilians! see me here avow'd!
By all yon conscious stars and Heaven I swear,
His hand and spirit were too young to dare.

The

The fraud was mine: on me your fury bend!
He only loved too much his hapless friend."
'Frantic he spoke; but, driven with force, the sword
Through the burst ribs the snowy bosom gored.
Fallen is Euryalus; and o'er his limbs,
By beauty polish'd, death in crimson swims.
His head collapsing sinks upon his breast:
Like some rich flower, in Nature's purple drest;
That, sever'd by the cruel ploughshare, lies
In ruin'd loveliness, and fading dies:
Or a bright poppy, that, with vanquish'd power,
Feels its bell loaded by the rushing shower,
And droops with languid neck. But Nisus glows
With scorn of life, and springs amid the foes.
To Volscens only through the press he breaks:
Volscens alone his vengeful object makes.
The hosts throng round him with condensing force;
And here and there the blows confound his course.
Still he bears on, and whirls his flaming sword:
Till in the mouth of the Rutilian lord,
Loud clamoring for aid, the steel he drives;
And, dying, his detested foe survives.
Then on his breathless friend his limbs he throws,
Mangled with wounds, and sinks in sweet repose.
'Blest pair! if strains like mine such power can give,
Still in the heart your memory shall live:
Whilst high the Iülian capitol shall tower,
Eternal as its rock, and Rome be throned in power.'

We must omit the lament of the mother of Euryalus, and the first "fleshing of the maiden weapon" of Ascanius, admirably as both passages are translated; and we must also force ourselves to refer only to the noble picture of Turnus, inclosed within the camp of the enemy, in order that we may proceed to the tenth book. The first object which there arrests our attention is Jupiter in the council of the gods. Surely the original loses little if any dignity in the subjoined extract:

'Thus Juno pleaded; and through Heaven's divan,
As each inclined, a various murmur ran.
So, when amid the forest's depths confined,
Groan the first infant spirits of the wind,
In pale alarm, the mariner from far
Hears the sure presage of the watry war.
Then Heaven's Almighty Sire, who governs all,
Began, and with his eye composed the hall.
Mute, as he spoke, the imperial palace lay:
Dread silence brooded on the realms of day.
Earth trembles underneath: the zephyrs sleep;
And glassy splendor floats upon the deep.'

The combat of Turnus and Pallas is rendered with great spirit; and the death of the latter is pathetic, as it should be. The phantom of Æneas, pursued by Turnus, preserves all the fancy and vigour of the original: but we must reserve our quotations for the divine tenderness of Lausus, rushing to defend his wounded father.

'When Lausus *saw* his much-loved sire's distress,
He *groans*, and tears his anguish'd soul *confess*.
And here, illustrious youth! if future time
Will yield belief to virtue so sublime,
Thy deed, thy fate my song shall give to fame;
And distant ages, weeping, hail thy name.
The impeded father, with the foot of pain,
Drew slowly back, and trail'd along the plain
The hostile javelin; while the son, beneath
The high-raised falchion springing, braved its death,
And check'd the hero. As the filial shield
Cover'd the sire retreating from the field,
Shouts of applause from all his friends resound;
And their thick-falling darts the foe confound.
He rages, and behind his shield remains.
As, when the clouds drive hail upon the plains,
Gall'd by the shower, the traveller and hind
Speed to some refuge from the stony wind.
Or under a coved rock they shun the sky;
Or shelter'd by a river's margin lie;
Till, chasing the black storm with victor ray,
The sun restore their labours with the day.
Thus, overwhelm'd with missives from afar,
Æneas stands protected from the war;
And, chiding Lausus, threats him from his fate:
'"Ah! why, fond youth! beyond thy strength be great?
And dare a deed that prudence would dissuade!
On death thou runn'st, by piety betray'd."
'But Lausus not the less the foe defies;
Till all the terrors of the Dardan rise;
And the Fates spin the youth's extremest thread:
For the puissant sword with fury sped,
Aim'd at his body, plunges in his breast
Through the light buckler, and the embroider'd vest.
(The vest, dear offering of parental love,
His mother's tender hand with gold inwove.)
Gore floats his bosom, and, in pale divorce,
Parts the sad spirit from the falling corse.
But when his face, as life's warm colours fade,
Pale, deadly pale, Anchises' son survey'd;
All rage extinct, he heaves the heart-deep groan,
Moved with a piety so like his own:
Then, stretching out his hand: "To worth like thine
What equal honours can my power assign?

Unhappy

Unhappy boy! Æneas, feeble here,
Can only give thy pious love a tear.
Keep thy dear arms! and, if that touch the dead,
Rest with thy sires in one sepulchral bed.
This may at least console thy mournful shade;
Thou fell'st beneath the great Æneïan blade."
'Upbraiding then the Etrurians' tardy fears,
Himself the youthful hero's body rears:
While their warm life the ruptured vessels pour;
And all his comely tresses drop with gore.'

The succeeding description of Mezentius retired from the battle does no injustice to the highly picturesque character of the original, and his address to his horse is truly touching. Mr. Scott's exclamation,

"Woe worth the while! woe worth the day!
That cost thy life, my gallant grey!"

Lady of the Lake,

rather shrinks from the comparison; suggested as it possibly was by the several classical addresses of this nature. We may observe, in this place, that another passage in the tenth book seems to have been playing in the fancy of the author of the poem just quoted: we mean that in which it is said of the soldier rushing to arms that he

—— 'left his fair-one's yet untasted charms —
Him, in the purple favours of his bride,
Mezentius now among the ranks espied,' &c. &c.

Our readers will probably remember Mr. Walter Scott's bridegroom taken from the very altar to the war.

The concluding speech of the 10th book is so deeply affecting in idea, and so well preserved by the translator, that we must quote it. A dying tyrant, praying to his mortal enemy to defend his body from the insults of an injured people, is one of the most impressive objects that can be presented to the imagination. It *must* have contributed to restrain the passions of Augustus;

'To him the Tuscan, as on heaven, amazed,
With eyes just opening from his trance he gazed;
"Why thus, fell foe! with insult sharpen death?
Take without guilt, for so thou may'st, my breath!
'Twas not on other terms than these we fought:
Nor other league with thee my Lausus sought.
But, if such grace a vanquish'd foe may find,
Ah! let my body be to earth resign'd.
Too well I know, and dread, alas! too late,
The infuriate vengeance of my people's hate.
From this protect me, and avert its doom:
And let me slumber in my Lausus' tomb."

'Then to the expected steel he gave his throat:
And the warm streams of life o'er all his armour float.'

Evander's unhappy welcome of his lifeless son has much feeling in it, generally considered; and indeed this 11th book abounds in translated beauties. The speeches of Drances and Turnus reconcile animation with dignity; and the comparison of Turnus with the horse set at liberty is very well executed. Almost all the Virgilian similes* have been carefully and poetically expressed in this last of the versions of Virgil: for last it may well be called; it has, in every sense, completely *filled the house;* and any honest bookseller, like any honest box-keeper, would inform the next applicant that "*there is no room!*" "NUNC *non erat his* LOCUS."

The fanciful story of the birth and preservation of Camilla is well rendered: but we cannot find *room* to quote it.

—— "*Purpureus quondam color ora reliquit.*"

'And roseate beauty from her cheek retires'

is a very pretty line; — and it brings us, by the connection of contrast, which is as close and natural as that of similarity, to the glowing Lavinia:

'Her mother's words, alarm'd Lavinia hears;
Her cheeks suffused with blushes and with tears.
Tumultuous passion courses through her frame;
And o'er her skin is pour'd the ruddy flame
As, stain'd with sanguine purple, ivory glows;
Or lilies blush, embedded with the rose:
So o'er the living alabaster spread
The impassion'd tints, and breathed celestial red.
He sees; and, gazing with intense desire,
Burns for the combat with augmented fire:
And briefly to the sorrowing queen replies;
"Ah cease, my mother! now from tears and sighs!"'

The name of "mother," given by Turnus to Amata, has great force in this passage.

The opening of the single combat between Æneas and Turnus is as grand and vivid in delineation as any tournament that was ever described. We have no doubt that many tilts have been celebrated after this original model; and that it lent grace and elegance, not otherwise their own, to many subsequent assemblies of Gothic warriors: — so little have we that is "new under the sun!" and so largely have the middle and later ages, as they are called, gathered their broken

* See on this subject a passage in Dr. Symmons's preface, part of which will be quoted in the present Review.

and

and imperfect knowlege from the noble wreck of classical antiquity.

Dr. Symmons closes his labours with vigour that endures to the last: but we must here finish our selections, and our references to the beauties of this meritorious work; proceeding to our reluctant though unavoidable task of censure. We shall divide our remarks of this nature into two branches; the first, a list of errors, (as we conceive,) more numerous than we could have wished to notice; the second, a smaller catalogue of defects of taste, which may (perhaps) be traced to a different origin.

The general title that we would venture to affix to our first class is the following:

Prosaic, familiar, cramped, and ungraceful Expressions.

Our readers will easily distinguish under which head each example falls; and by this expedient we shall be enabled to discharge our critical duty to them, in its censorial sense, while we leave room for those important citations (important, we conceive, in every view, to our literary taste,) which we feel ourselves required to make from the preface.

'*While these events engaged* the distant scene.'
'And hot thirst parches his *unbloody* jaws.'
'Say, for the *fact*, believed by ancient days.'
'Hear then the *purpose of my thoughts' debate.*'
'*Assert the just importance of the cause.*'
'The base *purloiners* of my bride shall bleed.'
—— 'the gorgeous prize
In vain adapting, *cross* * his shoulder ties.'
'What cloud, my friends, rolls hither *shot* with flames.'

'A cloud *shot* with flames!' to what *can* this recall the imagination of the hearer, but to a dark Irish poplin *shot with a greenish gold!* "Grafton House" is the true scene of decision for this weighty question.

'And prone upon the earth the weltering corse *subsides.*'

We may observe that the word '*subsides*' occurs on several occasions very improperly, but *here* it is the most offensive. There is a quaint sort of *sinking* of the spirit in the word '*subsides,*' which wholly excludes it from the honest energy of epic song. We may also remark, as we pass, that the

* Here, it strikes us, is an instance of that mixture of choice and careless expression, of patrician and plebeian phraseology, which we have already noticed in Dr. Symmons's translation.

rhymes in this passage are more than usually discordant in their similarity of sound. For instance,

glides	}	tried
divides	}	dyed.
subsides	}	

We have already spoken on this little-examined subject, the discord of similar rhymes. It is clear that if rhyme, or the homotonous termination of lines in verse, is intended to be musical, it must be so by contrast; that is, the preceding and the following rhyme must strike different notes,—must be compounded of contrasted simple sounds. The next *word* to which we object is '*captived*,' unless (like too many other words in this volume) it is wrongly printed.

'Tarchon was *struck;* and straight consents to yield.'

'A thousand *phalangites* with horrent spears.'

Not the smallest sanction for this harsh expression can be found in the original. We remark also a wrong turn given to a passage in this book; or rather a turn *too right* for the original. It would, perhaps, have been better to generalize the whole of the passage between the lines 300 and 400 of the original, than to attempt to give it a moral effect.

'And hails the spread of the *benefic* fires.'

How a scholar, English as well as classical, could admit such a quaint and pedantic word as '*benefic*' into his verses, we cannot imagine. We suspect that here is some faulty theory of language; and that the plain and positive distinction between prose and verse (even supposing that *such* words could be admitted into prose) is forgotten or unknown.

'*Arcadians, mind me,* and attentive hear.'

This phrase, '*mind me*,' is more like a feeble old schoolmistress, scolding without effect her rebellious children, than a hero addressing his fellow-warriors. "Mild *Arcadians*, ever blooming," they must have been who would have *minded* such an address.

'His friends he *heard,* beneath the hostile *sword*
On fate's *nice* verge his distant aid implored.'

'The *sale of lives* is stopped by Turnus' sword.'

Although this expression would have done very well for Shakspeare, even the licence given by the Latin in the phrase '*belli commercia*' cannot, in our judgment, sanction the English translation. It is the Βιων Πρασις of Lucian. It is a ludicrous, a sarcastically ludicrous interpretation; and we

we beg to call the translator's attention, in the event of a second edition, to this passage, and to some others which strongly resemble it.

'Liger first speaks — not these, that thou may'st *run*,
The steeds of Tydeus' or of Peleus' son.'

'That thou may'st *run*' is all the *gloriousness of* BOTCH!

'Thus overwhelmed with *missives* from afar.'

This unfortunate word is frequently repeated, with equal awkwardness on each reiteration.

'The aspiring pine *subsides* beneath his wounds.'

—— 'from their lips *exacts*
A full display, in order, of the *facts*.'

'To us *self-centred* Hope alone remains.'

—— 'in *affluent* supply
Close by the sea the wish'd *materials* lie.'

'Or, o'er the fields which *life-throng'd* Padus floats.'

'Forced from the *effectless* council to depart.'

'*Prest by the times*, he feels *peculiar* care,
And stands, *self-charged*, for his rejected heir.'

—— 'to this a passage led
Strait-mouth'd, perplex'd, ensnaring to the tread.'

'Death soon *resulted* from her twanging string,
Or *rode the missive*, as she whirl'd her sling,
And brought the crane, or swan, from her aërial *wing*.'

This notion of Death '*riding the missive*,' which occurs more than once in this version, is *evidently* borrowed from the image of Death in the Revelation, *riding* on his white horse; and it is as incongruous with Virgil as we might have expected.

—— 'When in the grove the *jolly* priest
Proclaims the richness of the victim-feast.'

The "*secundus haruspex*" is rather sarcastically interpreted into the '*jolly priest*.'

'*Nathless* the bird attacks her fighting prey.'

'*Nathless*' is too obsolete to please us; it is not one, in short, of the "*pauca Catonis verba*" which, we think, ought to be revived at present. Neither can we admire '*hooky talons*;'— nor

'The virgin's spoils, *unanxious*, I resign;'

nor

'As through rent air the sounding *missive* flies;'

nor

'In spirit, number, *war-puissant* hands;'

nor

—— 'with minds *arrect*
The Italians gaze,' &c.

nor

—— 'Messapus to the ground
Tumbles Aulestes;'

a phrase more befitting a description of some of the late electioneering riots than that of a battle in the Æneid.

'While round the god, in *grim-subservience*, throng
Terror, Fraud, Flight, and pour with Death along.'

It is obvious to remark, on these lines, that the classical authors reserve their personifications, and other *striking* figures of speech, for great occasions; a practice strongly to be recommended to our contemporaries.

'O'er the fall'n chief stands *imminent* to wound.'

—— 'with *benefic* zeal
Explor'd the plants' *green-potency* to heal.'

'Her brother's charioteer, who grasp'd the rein,
Her hand *unseats*, and *drops* upon the plain.'

'*To drop*' a person must be a metaphor taken either from the Stage-coachman's or the Pugilist's dictionary. In this instance, Juturna, perhaps, may be said to have combined both characters; since she not only knocks Metiscus down, but drives Turnus off.

'Æneas *dashes* with a massy rock
Murranus,' &c.

—— 'Latinus—
—— bends, *self-charged*, that, *all the grace his own*,
He had not called Æneas to his throne.'

'Who, *wreck-sav'd*, here to Latium's god address'd:'

'In dust *distinctionless* the hallow'd shade.'

'And hope *ill* breaks the cloud that wraps his soul.'

We must here put an end to our long list of "Prosaic, familiar, cramped, and ungraceful Expressions;" and we must now briefly revert to our second branch of errors: those, namely, of lines which are too much amplified; — or in which images are introduced that have a modern cast and character; — and of words too rhetorical or bombastic.

In this class, in a translation of Virgil, we are often obliged to make objections to verses that would be altogether pleasing in

in an original English composition. For instance; book the ninth,

—— "*roseo Thaumantias ore locuta est.*"

—— 'her lips disclose
'The blush at once and fragrance of the rose.'

This is a modern flourish, very pretty in itself, but wholly foreign from the chaste simplicity of classical verse. It is Italian, rather than Roman.

—— 'bears death
In broad *diffusion* on the foes beneath.'

Book xi. 'To damp with prudence war's REDUNDANT fire.'

This, we think, is a very injudicious epithet, and ill suited to the first unrestrained overflow of the father's sorrows: it is, indeed, wholly unlike the

"*Cautius ut sævo velles te credere Marti*"

of the original.

When will our modern authors (even the best of them) be convinced that the simplest words, *provided that they are pure and elegant*, are often the strongest? When will they recollect the wonders that Otway has wrought in this manner? He indeed has fixed the bounds of the *simple pathetic.*

'Whilst I, by life's *transgression*, am undone,
Have tired my fortunes, and survive my son.'

"*Contra ego vivendo vici mea fata, superstes*
Restarem ut genitor."

'*Pale Death sits by him in the car of Fame;*'

"— *sunt illis sua funera* —"

This is *redundant*, certainly; and a prodigal waste of unauthorized personification. So also the following:

'Chance ever *rides* on Time's eventful wing,
And restless Fortune's ebb precedes her *spring.*'

The grave severity of the original is dissimilar indeed:

"*Multa dies variusque labor mutabilis ævi*
Retulit in melius: multos alterna revisens
Lusit, et in solido rursus Fortuna locavit."

'And *listening Terror** hung on his report.'

—— "*Magnisque urbem terroribus implet.*"

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* It may be urged that the acknowleged inferiority of the English to the Latin language demands a greater profusion of these figures to raise it into poetry; and there is some truth in the allegation.

'And

'And *his proud Hope's* PREVENTION routs the foe.'
—— 'while dark beneath
Spreads the red anarchy of raging death.'

This is a passage wholly gratuitous, without a syllable in the original to support it, and more worthy of one of poor Nat Lee's insane paroxysms than of the present composition.

'And, through the side, *to Death's commission* just.'
'And Death, pursuing, *rides* upon his spear.'

On the point of it? Death, then, would rival one of the angels in the schoolman's fanciful calculation. But enough and too much of this. We now bid adieu to Dr. Symmons's real or supposed blemishes of poetic style, and will endeavour to give some general account of his *prolegomena* and *postscripta*, in this ample and interesting volume.

Dr. Symmons's preface is not only a very learned and elegant composition, but it contains much useful information and argument. It may be divided into three principal compartments. First, that in which the translator defends, most triumphantly, the just claims to original invention, and consequently to the highest honours of poetry, that are preferred by his inimitable author. Under this head, the peculiar and universally acknowleged praise of Virgil is energetically and judiciously discriminated from that of all other writers; and his dignified language and harmonious versification are vindicated from the dishonour of any competition or rivalry whatever. In the second division of his subject, Dr. S. has successfully pleaded the cause of legitimate poetry against its barbarous assailants, whether in the shape of Bavius or of Zoilus, of good-for-nothing rhymesters or of would-be critics, in the present day. In the third and last portion of the preface, he has given an account of the different versions of the whole or of a part of Virgil, and has spoken feelingly and modestly of his own undertaking.

We present our readers with the subsequent instructive extracts:

'It has been observed by Aristotle (the subject of whose remarks was principally the drama) that the most difficult part of the poet's labour was the construction of his fable; and that more had failed in this prime portion of their work than in any of the others. What the sagacity of this transcendant critic suggested to him on this topic, has been demonstrated to be true by the experience of all ages, from his own to the present; and, on the evidence of the event, that power of mind which can combine the various incidents of a great action into one just and perfect whole, must be regarded as of rarer occurrence than that, which can either delineate character or exhibit sentiment, or supply the colouring

of diction. For the proof of this assertion, we need not wander from our own country as it exists in our own times; for, affluent as it is in writers of poetic fancy, it has not produced one who has shown himself equal to the construction of a poetic fable. Now the Æneis must be admitted to be a grand structure, in the formation of which this presiding faculty of mind has been exerted with the most unquestionable success. Every part of the magnificent edifice has been so disposed by the hand of the consummate architect as to fall into one great plan, and perfectly to combine the charm of variety with the impression of unity. Of this praise it is impossible to deprive the Æneis; and with this, associated with his supreme mastery of poetic diction, it will not be easy to dispossess its author of that high rank among the sons of the Muse to which he has been elevated by the unanimous suffrage of so many successive generations.'

Passing the sound and ingenious reasoning in general defence of Virgil's poetic invention, which follows this passage, we advert to another and minor branch of the subject:

'That few only of the similes of Virgil are original, and that he may perpetually be tracked in the epic and dramatic poets of Greece, are facts which his admirers may be as little desirous of concealing, as he seems himself to have been ambitious of displaying. With opinions, on the subject of original composition, different from those of some of the poets of the present age, he conceived that by a masterly use of the material he made it substantially his own; and that, by adapting it to the embellishment of his work, he lost no more of his credit as a poet or an inventor, than an architect would of his, as a designer, by adjusting a marble from an ancient temple to a place in his dome or colonnade.' — 'Having evinced himself, in short, by the construction of his poem to be a poet, as the term is defined by the illustrious critic of Greece, he might very justly imagine that he was only exhibiting other and subordinate powers of his mind, when he was thus fashioning, and improving for his purposes, what he had solicited from the affluence of the Grecian Muse.'

Very reluctantly, we are compelled to omit the Doctor's scientific and powerful defence of rhime, and his accompanying character of blank verse: but for some observations on subjects connected with the general powers and properties of English verse, we must find a place.

'The modern schools of Cowper and Darwin, as their systems tend to two opposite extremes, are both evidently tainted with error; the disciples of the former degrading verse into prose in their eagerness to avoid tumour, or shocking us with discord as they pursue the charm of variety; whilst those of the latter satiate our ears with a dull and stagnant monotony, under the pretence of gratifying them with perpetual and unmitigated harmony. By the just award of the public taste, the Darwinian school is now happily no more, and may consequently be dismissed from our

our notice: but some of the corrupt tenets of that of Cowper, under the false names of simplicity and varied diction, have still those who espouse them; and their influence on our composition may yet slightly be traced. In the short and weak preface to his Homer, Mr. Cowper speaks contemptuously of poetic composition, "*bedizened*" with metaphor; and, in defence of his broken and discordant numbers, he asserts that they were the subjects of his choice, to relieve the ear from a palling sameness of cadence. But surely metaphor is pre-eminently, if not peculiarly, the property of poetry; and that which constitutes the living principle of its language. The diction of the classic Muse is almost uniformly figurative; and throughout the productions of Virgil it will be difficult to discover ten lines in continuity of which some are not ornamented or made picturesque with metaphor. The same may be affirmed of the lyric compositions of Horace; and, simple as on many occasions may be the diction of the Grecian bards, it will be found to be generally metaphoric. Metaphoric, indeed, it must be in proportion as it is poetic; and metaphor, as we may confidently assert, has no necessary connexion whatever with tumour or meretricious embellishment. For the support of what we advance, passages without number might be adduced from the poets of Greece and Rome, of Italy and England: but the obviousness of its truth makes citations, for its confirmation, unnecessary; and if we are desirous of seeing what is poetry (if poetry it may be called) when *unbedizened* with metaphor, we have only to open Mr. Cowper's Ilias, and we shall immediately be satisfied. As to the other tenet, maintained by this ingenious man and his followers, of introducing discords for the production of variety, it stands equally refuted by all the great classic examples, and by the very nature of the thing itself. Our ear, indeed, solicits variety in verse; but it can be only within the precincts of verse that it solicits it. If it ask for what is beyond these limits, it asks for an incongruity, and seeks for pleasure from something monstrous, a thing unacknowledged either as verse or as prose. In the compositions of Homer and of Virgil, the variety of cadence is nearly infinite, and the ear is relieved and delighted by the still shifting position of the pause. The line is sometimes quickened and sometimes impeded; now roughened with aspirates and consonants, and now smooth and flowing with liquids and vowels. But, under every change and mode of adaptation to the poet's purpose, the line is still an hexameter; constructed upon certain principles, and invariably constituted of a due proportion of spondees and dactyls.'

We must be contented with one other citation on this point, so interesting to every mind that is imbued with even the slightest classical taste and knowlege:

'My readers will probably think that I trifle with them, when I thus affect to communicate knowlege of which they are already possessed. But, in refuting this dangerous and weak doctrine of the Cowperian school, it was necessary for me to consider the

general structure of an English heroic verse, that we might ascertain the bounds within which a variety of cadence can allowably be sought. If a line be deprived of its metre, we affirm that an unlicenced liberty has been taken; and that the result is, not pleasure from the variety, but, pain from the discord and resentment in consequence of the transgression. In the pages of Mr. Cowper, and of his pupils, occur numberless instances of these no-verses, which we are commanded to admire as the produce of refined taste, and as justified by the authority of Milton and of some of our other great masters of song. That Milton, with his exquisitely fine ear for poetic harmony, has produced many of these maimed lines, is a fact beyond dispute: but that they were deliberately produced with the sanction of his cool judgment, is a question much more open to debate. His perfect rhythm possesses all the variety that can be required by the ear; and, without any classic authority for the transgression, it is not easily conceivable that he would violate his metre for an object which he could rightfully obtain. Far more probable is it, that these defective lines fell from him in the carelessness of rapid composition; and were subsequently withdrawn from his revision by that calamity which prevented him from reading his own page. In any event, no example, however great, can sanction what is destructive of the very thing for which the offence is committed.'

The close and critical examination of the rythm of Milton, which follows these original and acute observations, may be studied with advantage by any poet; and the dignified but truly modest manner in which the author says all that is necessary, and nothing farther, of his own work, may afford a lesson of still more salutary effect.

We doubt not that the account of the translations of Virgil, previous to that of Dryden, is as correct as it is ample; and, to gratify the bibliographical taste of some of our readers, we transcribe it from Dr. Symmons's preface:

'To speak of the translations of my author, antecedent to that by Dryden, can be gratifying only to curiosity: for, in their present sepulchral rest on the shelves of the literary virtuoso, they are consulted only for the purposes of antiquarian research. Without noticing the prose version by Caxton, the printer, of which I know nothing but the name, I refer to the translations of the Æneis by Gawen Douglas, the Earl of Surrey, Phaer and Twyne, Stanyhurst, Sir T. Wroth, Sandys, Waller, and Sydney Godolphin, and May: for those by Vicars, Ogleby, Sir T. Howard, Fanshaw, and the Earl of Lauderdale, may be regarded as of the age of Dryden; though all of them preceded his work, and some by the intervention of several years. * Among these more ancient

'* To these elder translators of Virgil, I must add, on the respectable authority of Mr. Malone, the names of Fleming, Boys, and Harrington, with whose productions I am wholly unacquainted.'

versions

versions of my author, that by Gawen Douglas, the learned and accomplished Bishop of Dunkeld, is eminently distinguished by its poetic merit.'

To these partial or entire translators of the immortal Mantuan, are to be added the blank version of Dr. N. Brady, the versifier of the Psalms also; and that of Mr. Hawkins, Oxford Professor of Poetry. Of Trapp's *blank* in this great lottery, Dr. S. speaks very kindly; influenced by the acknowleged learning of the said Dr. Trapp. Of Pitt he does not express himself in so respectful a manner; nor is there any thing in that feeble writer to require it. To Dryden he bows with due feeling; and it is this very reverence for his great predecessor, in his rarer and happier moments, that has enabled Dr. S. to excel him in the general tone and character of his translation.

We now turn to the notes; and here we really grieve to see the utter impossibility of executing our intention with regard to them. We can only generally state that they comprise a great mass of sound knowlege, in a very small comparative compass; that they abound with critical acumen; and that we very seldom find any reason to differ, materially, from their decisions.

When, however, the Doctor says that the expression of "*animam ultricis flammæ*" (in the second Æneid.) is hard, we do not understand him; we have always read and construed thus;—*juvabit explêsse animum ultricis flammæ*,—"it will be a gratification to fill my mind with the fires of revenge;" in other words, "to satisfy my vengeance."

When, also, he proposes to supply the well-known chasm in the third book,

"*Quem tibi jam Trojâ* ——

as follows,

—— *incensâ Deus obtulit orbum*,

we think that he is unhappy in his suggestion, because neither in sound nor in sense do we consider the phrase to be Virgilian. *Pereunte Creusa reliquit*, or *fumante Creusa reliquit*, may, *perhaps*, be something better: but we are far from fancying it to be successful.

Moreover, we cannot approve the insertion of a long, uninteresting, and dull version (as it seems to us) of a rambling story, in Ovid's *Fasti*, about the fate of Anna, Dido's sister, in the notes to the fourth book. "*Anna soror, soror Anna*," "Sister Anne, sister Anne," might as well have been omitted.

A note on Bonaparte occurs at page 642. which will greatly offend some of our Ultra-royalists and Extra-legitimates:

rrates: but, with a little abatement, we hold it to be equally just and magnanimous.

Dr. Symmons maintains that the figure of the river Mincius, and not the river itself, is intended by the lines "*velatus arundine glaucâ Mincius,*" &c., and says that the poet would have talked of the '*placidness* of the waters, or the verdure of the banks,' had he meant the river itself: but we cannot discover the force of this argument; and we conceive that the Doctor must have forgotten the mode in which Virgil mentions this beloved river on two other occasions:

"*Hic viridis* tenerâ *prætexit* arundine *ripas*
Mincius." Ecl. vii. 12.

——— "tardis *ingens ubi* flexibus *errat*
Mincius, et tenerâ *prætexit* arundine *ripas.*"
Georg. iii. 14.

A note at page 625., on the irreconcileable difference of philosophical abstractions and poetical images, is well worthy of the attention of that second race of metaphysical poets, — that sect of mental surgeons, dissectors of the passions, — who have appeared among us in these last and evil days of our poetic taste. We regret, indeed, that we cannot quote either this passage or the candid and judicious criticisms on the faults of the tenth book of the original.

Among the multitude of readers, in the present day, is a serious class, of which the *component individuals* may think that too much time and thought have been bestowed on the niceties of language and versification both by Dr. Symmons and ourselves. To such persons, for whose good feeling we have the highest regard, we would recommend a little deeper examination of the powers and properties of the human mind; requesting them to remember how closely connected are the principles of moral purity and the seeds of intellectual excellence; and what a wonderful association exists between our habits of judging and our habits of feeling. To these common topics, applicable to all ages and countries, and illustrated by the history of every nation, (whose growth in real greatness has been always proportionate to its improvement in true taste, and whose decline and fall have ever been *preceded* by a deterioration of the public judgment in works of learning,) we would have the persons in question add one other inquiry: "What is the state of the more popular part of English literature at present?" If that state be such as we blush and tremble to consider it, grateful indeed should his countrymen be to such a writer as Dr. Symmons, who has recalled us to purer models, who "has stood in the gap," and has endeavoured at least "to stay the plague."

ART.

ART. III. *The British Plutarch*, containing the Lives of the most eminent Divines, Patriots, Statesmen, Warriors, Philosophers, Poets, and Artists, of Great Britain and Ireland, from the Accession of Henry VIII. to the present Time. A new Edition, re-arranged, and enriched with several additional Lives. By the Rev. Francis Wrangham, M.A. F.R.S. of Trinity College, Cambridge. 6 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Mawman, and Baldwin and Co.

MANY years have elapsed since the *first* edition of this work was offered to the public; and, the undertaking having succeeded, a *third* appeared in 1791, which was briefly announced in our seventh vol. N. S. p. 105. The abilities of Mr. Wrangham, who has now assumed the office of its editor and continuator, are so well known to the literary world, that we need not enter into any discussion of his competency to the task; and, when he assures his readers that he has re-arranged and almost re-composed the whole of the former lives, inserting many corrections and improvements, and giving more uniformity to the diction of the general mass, they will be ready to take his information on trust, and to admit the probability that the several compositions have been gainers by his exertions. We learn also that some of the biographies have been omitted, and some contracted, in order to make room for the expansion of others, in cases in which the individuals merited the highest distinction by their talents or their virtues; and whose examples the juvenile student might contemplate with the greatest probability of moral and intellectual advantage. — The new lives which make their appearance in this collection are those of Sir John Cheke, Sir Philip Sidney, Colonel John Hutchinson, Dr. Richard Bentley, George Berkeley, Sir William Jones, and Lord Viscount Nelson.

As all the lives are arranged in chronological continuity, they exhibit the most striking features of the civil and ecclesiastical, the literary and scientific, features of the most important portion of English History; viz. from the reign of Henry VIII. to that of George III.; and, as they amount to the number of one hundred, and are comprehended in six well-sized octavo volumes, sufficient space has been allotted to each, not merely for a dry generality of biographical statement, but for some vivid and characteristic particularity of delineation. Each life is not a mere skeleton of the individual, with the date of his nativity and his death, the name of the place, that of his school, that of the college at which he took his degree, and the titles of the books which he published, but, as far as Mr. Wrangham's materials would admit, he

he has animated and embellished the different narratives with interesting details, and with some of those minute circumstances which throw light on manners or on principles, and serve as lines of discrimination in the varied fabric of human conduct.

The lives of the Grecian biographer, whose name has been borrowed for the title of this collection, are particularly remarkable for the vivid portraiture which they draw of the sentiments, habits, manners, and personal or moral peculiarities of the individuals. His delineation is often so striking that the person is as it were restored to life on the page: the narration is not a mere inert and vapid collection of insignificant facts, or unimportant remarks: but the individual is made to re-appear in his original likeness, again to take up his former identity, and to talk and act as he did when the current of vitality was warm in his veins. This is the criterion of biographical excellence, and the attainment of it is the highest praise which the biographer can merit. It is this excellence which has made Plutarch the delight both of the young and of the old in different ages and nations; and even when the individuals, whose lives he has described, appear to have been placed in a period of antiquity too remote for any contact of immediate sympathy or interest in the present times, yet such was his research in procuring and his skill in selecting the particulars of his narrative, that the lives of Romulus or Lycurgus, Solon or Numa, of Themistocles, Pericles, &c. still excite a sort of living interest, and are perused with a delight similar to that which we feel in contemplating the characteristic memoirs of more recent times. The truth is that Plutarch has been eminently successful in exploring human nature, not only in the mass but in the detail; and he never fails to embellish his page with incidents or maxims which are strikingly illustrative of those κοιναι εννοιαι, those common sentiments, which find some fibres that vibrate in unison with them in the minds and hearts of human beings in all nations and climes.

If we can by no means bestow the same praise on the British Plutarch which we allot to the Plutarch of Greece, because we know not many modern biographers who in a single life, and none who in a collection of lives, can be placed on the same height of excellence with the biographer of Chæronea, or whose works may be read with equal instruction and delight, still we may safely assert that this 'British Plutarch' is very superior, both in matter and in style, to the former biographical collection under the same title. Moreover, the present editor has consi-

dered the work as principally designed for the instruction and amusement of the more juvenile reader; and he has in consequence carefully expunged every sentiment, or expression, which might tend to vitiate or corrupt, and has erased those characters which contained no traits that could fitly be recommended to the imitation of youth. We can, therefore, with great truth, recommend these volumes to the perusal of the youth of both sexes, as likely to supply them with a rich store of examples for imitation, of precepts for practice, and of amusement for the social or the solitary hour.

We shall now give a specimen of Mr. Wrangham's labours in the present edition, by selecting a part of one of the new lives: viz. that of Sir John Cheke; (Vol. i. p. 364.)

'This illustrious scholar was born at Cambridge in 1514; and admitted at the age of seventeen of St. John's College, where he speedily distinguished himself by his proficiency in the learned languages, particularly Greek, then much neglected in that University. After taking his degrees in arts, on the recommendation of Dr. Butts he was sent abroad at the King's expence to travel for his farther improvement; and upon his return, he was chosen Greek lecturer in his college. To this office no salary was annexed; but in the year 1540 Henry VIII. founded a Greek professorship at Cambridge, of which Cheke was appointed the first professor, when only twenty-six years of age. He had also the honour of being elected University-orator.

'In 1544 he was appointed jointly with Sir Antony Cook preceptor to Prince Edward; and he appears also to have given instruction to the Princess Elizabeth. At the same time he was appointed to a canonry of the newly-founded College of Christ Church, Oxford, which he subsequently exchanged for a pension. Edward VI., likewise, upon his accession, settled on him an annuity of a hundred marks, together with a grant of several lands and manors; and caused him to be elected Provost of King's College, Cambridge. His interest at court, indeed, sustained some temporary shocks, especially from his connexion with the unfortunate Duke of Somerset: but he still retained his office of tutor to the young sovereign, who was greatly indebted to him for the knowledge and virtue by which his transient reign was so illustriously distinguished. In 1550 he was appointed chief gentleman of the King's Privy Chamber; and the year following his Majesty conferred upon him the honour of knighthood, with an additional grant of considerable value. He was subsequently made Chamberlain of the Exchequer for life; in 1553 Clerk of the Council; and after a short interval, one of the Secretaries of State and a Privy-Councillor.

'Upon the death of Edward VI., with a view of sustaining the threatened interests of the reformed faith, Cheke entered into the criminal project of transferring the crown to Lady Jane Grey, to whose council he acted as secretary. That rash scheme being speedily quashed, he was committed to the Tower, stripped of the

chief part of his substance, and not long afterward set at liberty. Having procured leave to travel, he visited Basle and Padua, where he directed some of his countrymen in their studies. He then settled at Strasburg, where many learned Englishmen had associated to maintain the Protestant worship. There by the insidious invitation of his former friends Lord Paget and Sir John Mason, who had reverted to their old creed, and his own unfortunate confidence in astrology, to the follies of which he was, unhappily, much addicted, he was decoyed in 1556 to Brussels, where his wife then resided; and on his way between that city and Antwerp seized by order of Philip II. and reconveyed to the Tower. Ultimately reduced to the terrifying dilemma, 'Turn or burn,' he was not proof against the fiery ordeal. Hoping, however, to escape the disgrace of a public recantation, he first made his solemn submission before Cardinal Pole, and humbly requested to be re-admitted into the bosom of the Catholic church. But the triumph over such a man was too flattering to be enjoyed in a corner. He was therefore compelled to repeat this humiliating act of his infirmity before the Queen and her whole court. His property was now restored; but his recantation was followed by such bitterness of remorse, that he survived it but a short time, dying in 1557, at the early age of forty-three. He left behind him three sons.'

Sir John was distinguished not only by the ability and diligence which he manifested in the revival of classical learning in this country, but by the example which he furnished of a more pure, perspicuous, and energetic style than any that was at that time to be found in English compositions. Mr. Wrangham justly remarks that 'he introduced short sentences,' and his periods were not perplexed by Latin inversions, nor encumbered by a multiplicity of clauses. The two extracts, which are made from his work intitled "The Hurt of Sedition, how grievous it is to a Commonwealth," will furnish sufficient proof that his English prose was more clear, precise, and cogent than that of most if not all of his predecessors or contemporaries. The following passage, which is taken from the above-mentioned work, is very forcibly expressed. It is addressed to the insurgents in the west of England, who in the year 1549 had taken up arms to procure the restoration of Popery:

"Ye rise for religion. What religion taught you that? If ye were offered persecution for religion, ye ought to flee. So Christ teacheth you; and yet ye intend to fight. If ye would stand in the truth, ye ought to suffer like martyrs; and ye would slay like tyrants. Thus, for religion, ye keep no religion; and neither will follow the council of Christ, nor the constancy of martyrs. Why rise ye for religion? Have ye any thing contrary to God's book? Yea, have ye not all things agreeable to God's word? But 'the new is different from the old; and therefore ye will have the old.'

If ye measure the old by truth, ye have the oldest. If ye measure the old by fancy, then it is hard, because men's fancies change, to give that is old. Ye will have the old stile; will ye have any older than that as Christ left, and his Apostles taught, and the first church did use? Ye will have that the canons do establish: why that is a great deal younger than that ye have, of later time, and newlier invented; yet that is it that ye desire. And do ye prefer the Bishops of Rome before Christ? Men's inventions afore God's law? The newer sort of worship before the older? Ye seek no religion: ye be deceived; ye seek traditions. They that teach you, blind you; they that so instruct you, deceive you. If ye seek what the old doctors say, yet look what Christ the oldest of all saith. For he saith, 'before Abraham was made, I am.' If ye seek the truest way, he is the very truth: if ye seek the readiest way, he is the very way: if ye seek everlasting life, he is the very life. What religion would ye have other how than his religion? You would have the Bibles in again. It is no marvel: your blind guides should lead you blind still."

The above address was admirably adapted to the purpose for which it was designed, and proves that Sir John Cheke, who was a warm admirer of Demosthenes, had not studied that great orator in vain.

In our examination of these volumes, we have not remarked any passages which are likely to infuse illiberal or intolerant notions into the mind; and, as they present numerous examples of moral, scientific, and literary excellence, we think that the study of them must tend to enlarge the stock of useful and interesting information.

ART. IV. *Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind.* By Dugald Stewart, Esq. F.R.SS. Lond. and Edinb., &c. &c. Vol. II. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 620. 14s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

MR. STEWART is a writer of very high, and certainly in many respects of well deserved fame. We are inclined, however, to suspect that his reputation at present stands more elevated than his merits will ultimately be found to warrant; and we are decidedly of opinion that his principal strength does not lie in the quarter in which it is placed by the bulk of his admirers. As a production in the department of polite literature, the first volume of his Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind, (which was amply introduced to our readers in M. R. Vol. x. N.S. pp. 59. 203. and 366.) is full of elegant and pleasing disquisition; it presents many happy and ingenious applications of the philosophy of mind to the illustration of various subjects connected with the pleasures of

of taste and imagination; and it is every where distinguished for correct and elegant composition. By these recommendations it has acquired, and we doubt not will maintain, its present almost universal popularity: but we entertain great doubts whether the sequel to that work, contained in the volume now before us, will be equally fortunate with its predecessor. The subjects, indeed, which it professes to treat, are of a less inviting and attractive nature; less suited to the taste of the great mass of readers. It is more particularly intended, the author informs us, 'for the use of academical students; and is offered to them as a guide or assistant at that important stage of their progress when, the usual course of discipline being completed, an inquisitive mind is naturally led to review its past attainments and to form plans for its future improvement.' This object it is certainly, in many respects, well fitted to answer, by the importance of the topics which it discusses; and also in those cases even in which the author is led to maintain opinions that are (in our judgment) erroneous, by rousing the curiosity of the student to examine the foundation of doctrines that may be unexpected and paradoxical. To this latter class, we must confess, we are under the necessity of reducing several of the speculations contained in this volume, which appear to us to betray some of the most singular specimens of weak and inconclusive reasoning that we remember to have seen. The author, indeed, in one place, seems to be almost conscious of this fact; where, after having decried the technical forms of the Aristotelian logic, (on grounds the solidity of which we shall presently examine,) he expressly affirms that a proficiency in what is commonly called *reasoning*, or the faculty of stating arguments and drawing conclusions, is no mark of an enlightened or comprehensive mind, but rather the reverse.

We conceive that it is rather as a man of literature than as a man of science that Professor Stewart is likely to command the estimation of posterity. He possesses the advantages of extensive and indeed almost universal reading; a rare accomplishment, which he has turned to excellent account in what may perhaps be considered as his most valuable performance, the dissertation prefixed to the first volume of the Supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; — where it is applied to its proper purpose, in enabling him to give a view of the progress of thought and discovery on some of the most important subjects that can occupy the human faculties. In a treatise, however, in which we naturally look for original speculation, it not unfrequently occasions us a disappoint-

ment, by leading the author to imagine that he has presented us with a new discovery, when he has only reconciled apparent contradictions, exposed inconsistencies and mistakes in former writers, or drawn a nice and almost evanescent line of distinction between their tenets. His style of composition, though somewhat diffuse, is correct and perspicuous; and in this respect he bids fairer than any other writer of the present day to be ranked by posterity with Addison, Johnson, or Hume.

The general object of the speculations contained in this volume is an examination of the human understanding, or reason; which terms Mr. Stewart usually considers as synonymous. The introduction contains a view of the different senses in which these and some other related words, as knowlege, intellect, judgment, &c., are, or ought to be, employed; which is in the main correct and judicious. In the first chapter, the author proceeds to speak of what he calls the primary elements of human reason; and he points out a distinction which perhaps has not been sufficiently observed, but yet is certainly important, between the constituent and essential elements of reason, and the objects about which reason is conversant: a distinction which it is peculiarly necessary to make, in order to obtain correct ideas of the nature of mathematical reasoning. The axioms which are enumerated at the commencement of treatises on geometry, when considered in this light, appear to consist of two very distinct classes of propositions, equally self-evident, and on this account equally intitled to a place in the introduction to a treatise which professes to proceed according to an exact and scientific method. They are placed there, we presume, with great propriety; not, Mr. Stewart justly observes, to serve as the means of investigating or discovering new truths, but as the primary elements of reason; as the fundamental and self-evident principles which must be admitted or taken for granted in the first instance, before we can proceed to the establishment of any conclusion. Mr. Locke has correctly remarked that no one ever discovered any thing by help of the axioms: but it does not follow that, in a treatise, the object of which is to explain or demonstrate truths already discovered according to a scientific method, those self-evident maxims should not be laid down on which the whole of the subsequent reasoning is to be founded. After having repeated and adopted this doctrine of Mr. Locke, the author proceeds to comment on some statements of Dr. Campbell respecting the use of axioms; in doing which he is led to advance the extraordinary assertion that all our reasonings in arithmetic

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are founded merely on *definitions*: in other words, that arithmetic is a mere *hypothetical* science, the object of which, as he himself elsewhere expresses it, (p. 71.) 'is *not* truth, but systematical connection and consistency;' depending on certain arbitrary assumptions of our own, and not on well ascertained and indeed self-evident facts. 'In arithmetic and algebra,' says he, 'our investigations amount to nothing more than a comparison of different expressions of the same thing:'—so that, according to this notion, the proposition, *six times nine are equal to fifty-four*, is identical. It would be just as reasonable to maintain that the proposition, *oxygen and hydrogen, when mixed together in certain proportions, form water*, is merely a comparison of different expressions of the same thing. In both cases, we give our assent to a *fact*, which by most people is admitted in each instance on the authority of others, without farther attention to the evidence: but which is in both capable of verification by appeal to direct experiment. We do not intend to affirm that the evidence is equally distinct or the conclusion equally indisputable in the two cases, but that the nature of the proof is of the same kind. A person may indeed say, "I mean by the expression *fifty-four* the product of six multiplied by nine;" and he may, if he will, call this a definition; but, surely, if any body who is ignorant of arithmetic should affirm that six times nine make fifty-six, it would be improper to say, as according to this doctrine we ought to say, that he merely mistakes the meaning of a word. His mistake is with regard to a matter of fact, as much as if he were to affirm that water was compounded of oxygen and nitrogen. 'He who says that two and two make four, what more does he know, asks D'Alembert, than another who should content himself with saying that two and two make two and two?' Mr. Stewart calls this simple arithmetical equation a definition, we suppose, of the meaning of the word four: but ought it not rather to be called a proposition asserting a fact, which we ascertain or may ascertain in the same way with all other facts by direct experiment? We are misled in this case by the smallness of the numbers employed in expressing the question, and are induced to imagine that a proposition so simple and obvious is merely identical: but, if the principle obtains at all, it is equally true with respect to larger numbers; and it would be very strange to ask such a question as this, "He who says that sixteen times sixteen make 256, what does he know more than that 16 times 16 make 16 times 16?"

In the account given of axioms, which is derived chiefly from Mr. Locke, Professor Stewart does not seem to have attended sufficiently to an important distinction, which however did not escape that eminent philosopher, between the method of discovery and the method of science or instruction. Mr. Locke says that it was not the influence of maxims that led the masters of geometry into the wonderful discoveries which they have made: but Mr. Stewart represents him (p. 38.) as affirming that it is impossible from these axioms for human ingenuity to deduce a single inference. These are very different propositions; and the one is true, the other false. It should, however, be added that he limits this assertion to such propositions as the first seven in Euclid's list; in which, as he rightly observes, are several that belong to a class altogether different. It is doubtless true that the propositions, "*the whole is greater than its part*," and "*all right angles are equal*," differ in many important respects, which might in some cases justify us in reducing them to distinct classes: but they agree in that circumstance, in consideration of which they are brought together by Euclid in this catalogue; namely, that they are strictly self-evident, and must be admitted as fundamental principles, before we can proceed to the demonstration of other truths. Nevertheless, Mr. Stewart deems it proper to restrict the term to such truisms as those before mentioned; and, on the strength of this arbitrary assumption, he immediately proceeds to accuse both Euclid and Sir Isaac Newton of a very illogical latitude in the use of this word: the former, for arranging two different classes of propositions under this general designation; the latter, for giving the name of axioms to the laws of motion, and to the fundamental laws of reflection and refraction, which he has prefixed under this title to his treatise on Optics.

'For such a misapplication of the technical terms of mathematics, some apology might perhaps be made if the author had been treating on any subject connected with moral science, but surely in a work entitled Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy, the word axiom might reasonably have been expected to be used in a sense somewhat analogous to that which every person liberally educated is accustomed to annex to it, when he is first initiated into the elements of geometry.' (P. 44.)

To a censure expressed in such terms as these, when applied to Sir Isaac Newton, we should have objected if proceeding from any writer or used on any occasion: but in the present instance it seems to us not less unauthorized than misplaced. *To prevent cavil*, indeed, Mr. Stewart has observed

served that *he* limits the term axiom to such propositions as the first seven in Euclid's list: but we apprehend that he is the first who ever did this; and, if we do not mistake, he is not justified in this arbitrary limitation either by the customary or the original meaning of the word. Αξιωμα, from αξιοω, of which the secondary sense is *peto*, *postulo*, denotes a proposition or concession required before we can proceed to farther demonstrations: it is in this sense that it seems to have been used by Euclid; and therefore it appears evident that it is equally applicable to the two kinds of propositions, otherwise very distinct, which he has enumerated in the list thus intitled. It might with equal propriety have been applied to the postulates; which term, in fact, expresses in Latin precisely the same idea that αξιωμα denotes in Greek. Using the word in this sense, Sir I. Newton appears to have been perfectly justifiable in applying it to the laws of motion and the fundamental principles of optics, to which we have above alluded. A writer who undertakes to change the meaning of words, and to give to terms already in use new significations for the advancement of his own particular views, being careful at the same time duly to advertise his readers of the change, uses a liberty which perhaps in some circumstances may be permitted: but he should not proceed to charge eminent philosophers, who wrote before he was born, with a very illogical latitude in the use of words, because they employed them in a sense different from that which he has laid down.

Mr. Stewart proceeds in the following section to class the axioms with a variety of propositions, — some of them demonstrable, others only probable, others false or at least disputable, — among what he calls *primary elements* of human reason, or fundamental laws of human belief; phrases which he appears to have substituted in the place of those instinctive principles, or dictates of common sense, for the use of which some of his predecessors were so celebrated. He draws a distinction between these and what are properly called principles of reasoning, because no inference can be deduced from them when abstracted from other data. It is evident, for instance, that the mathematician could not demonstrate a single theorem by the help of the axioms, unless he were allowed to lay down his definitions. This is a distinction of some importance, and Mr. Stewart has the credit of having placed it in a more satisfactory and striking point of light than the generality of preceding writers; as we shall see when we come to consider the account which he has given of mathematical demonstration: — but, with respect to these elements

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of human reason, principles of common sense, or by whatever other name they are to be called, it is obvious to object that we are altogether destitute of any decisive mark or accurate criterion by which they can be distinguished. The criteria cited by the Professor from Buffier's Primary Truths are evidently unsatisfactory; viz. "1. That the truths assumed as maxims of common sense should be such, that it is impossible for any disputant either to defend or attack them but by means of propositions which are neither more manifest nor more certain than the propositions in question." (Who is to judge of this when the propositions are disputed?) "2. That their practical influence should extend even to those individuals who affect to dispute their authority." This is true of many which are certainly false, and acknowleged as such by all competent judges.

Having introduced the name of Buffier, Prof. Stewart goes a little out of his way in order to vindicate the sect of Scotish metaphysicians usually known by the name of *Common-sense Philosophers*, from the charge of plagiarism which has been somewhat roughly brought against them by the translator of the French treatise. The defence, as far at least as Dr. Beattie is concerned, amounts to this; that he has fallen short of the clearness and logical accuracy of his predecessor, and therefore cannot be supposed to have copied from him: but this vindication seems to us very inconclusive. That a man states his doctrine imperfectly or incorrectly is surely no proof that he did not borrow it from another writer: it proves only that, however he came by it, he did not thoroughly understand it, or could not convey his conception of it to others. It seems rather singular, and indeed unaccountable, that Mr. Stewart, who omits no opportunity of expressing his indignation against Dr. Priestley for his behaviour in this controversy, speaks in such high terms of commendation of this 'acute and intelligent translator;' whose language in attacking the Scotish philosophers is not only much more harsh and violent than that of Dr. Priestley, but who not unfrequently descends into vulgar and scurrilous abuse: whereas Priestley, however severely he may censure his opponents, never lays aside the manners and the language of a gentleman.

In the second chapter, after some general observations on the nature of deductive reasoning, the author enters into a more extended illustration of some positions advanced in the former volume respecting abstract ideas, on which subject he had espoused very zealously the doctrine of the Nominalists. Into this discussion we do not propose to follow him at present;

sent; only observing that the controversy seems to us to be entirely settled by the undeniable fact that brutes reason; that is, that they draw inferences and conclusions: which faculty is nothing more than a species of classification that evidently implies the use of general ideas. We cannot, however, refrain from expressing our surprise that Mr. Stewart, in the view which he gives of this subject, has taken no notice of the very masterly statement of the argument on the opposite side of the question by Dr. Brown in his examination of Darwin's Zoonomia; in which he has, we think, victoriously refuted all the arguments commonly brought forwards by the Nominalists. To us it appears evident that the use of language, considered either as an instrument of thought or as the means of ordinary communication, when correctly and philosophically viewed, instead of favouring this doctrine makes directly against it; and that it would be much more accurate to say that, if we had no general ideas, we should have no signs, than that, if we had no signs, we should have no general reasoning.

The third section of this chapter treats largely of mathematical demonstration; the author's account of which contains many observations that are ingenious and important, as well as in a great measure original: though the inferences which he has been led to deduce from them, respecting the peculiar distinction between the evidence of demonstration and that which attends our reasonings in physical science, appear to us by no means well founded. According to him, it is the peculiarity of mathematical reasoning to proceed not on axioms, but exclusively on *definitions*; which he represents as being nothing more than arbitrary assumptions or suppositions, whence certain consequences are inferred. It follows that,

'Whereas in all other sciences the propositions which we attempt to establish express *facts* real or supposed, — in mathematics, the propositions which we demonstrate only assert a connection between certain suppositions and certain consequences. Our reasonings therefore in mathematics are directed to an object essentially different from what we have in view in any other employment of our intellectual faculties; not to ascertain truths with respect to actual existences, but to trace the logical filiation of consequences which follow from an assumed hypothesis. If from this hypothesis we reason with correctness, nothing, it is manifest, can be wanting to complete the evidence of the result; as this result only asserts a necessary connection between the supposition and the conclusion. In the other sciences, admitting that every ambiguity of language were removed, and that every step of our deductions were rigorously accurate, our conclusions would still be attended with more or less of uncertainty, being ultimately founded

founded upon principles which may or may not correspond exactly with the fact.' (P. 157.)

Hence it follows that it is incorrect to affirm that any proposition in geometry or arithmetic is *true*; and that all which we are authorized to affirm is that it is correctly deduced from certain arbitrary assumptions. This doctrine is sufficiently paradoxical; and it will not appear more fitted to gain our assent, when Mr. Stewart proceeds to derive from this hypothetical nature of geometrical reasonings their peculiar cogency and evidence. To us it seems obvious that this paradox arises entirely from the false assumption that a definition is necessarily hypothetical or arbitrary. The *word* defined, that is, the articulate sound which is employed to express what we mean, is doubtless arbitrary: but the *thing* defined is quite otherwise. In this latter sense, the definitions of *circle*, *triangle*, &c. are nothing more than statements of facts; and the case is in no respect altered by the concession that it is impossible to prove any particular figure, which we may draw to illustrate or exemplify these definitions, to be a real circle or triangle. Whether we can or cannot trace out their boundaries by any known or possible practical construction, it is not the less true that these figures do really exist in absolute space; in the same way as the form of the statue existed in the block of marble before the sculptor developed and exhibited it to view: or, to adopt an example more closely analogous to the present question, in the same way as the straight line traced and measured by Colonel Mudge on Hounslow Heath really existed before that operation took place. Nay, there can be no doubt that the figures which we actually draw might themselves be made the objects of mathematical investigation, if it were worth while; though it is probable that their properties would be found of so complicated a nature as to transcend the powers of the most improved analysis. Mr. Stewart's error in this doctrine, therefore, seems to lie not so much in the premises as in the conclusion; the principle stated is doubtless correct and important, that all geometrical reasoning is derived from and depends on the definitions: but it does not follow that the whole of mathematical science is of a hypothetical nature, or that the conclusions of geometry or arithemetic do not relate to matters of fact. In one sense, indeed, the definitions in geometry may be said to be arbitrary; namely, that the particular property which is assumed as the basis of the definition, and from which all the others are derived by a regular chain of reasoning, may be arbitrarily selected. Thus we might, if we pleased, set out with defining a circle to be a

figure of such a nature that, of any two lines intersecting each other and terminated by the circumference, the rectangle contained by the segments of the one is equal to the rectangle contained by the segments of the other; and from this property, so assumed, we might prove by a train of reasoning the inverse of that which is actually pursued in the third book of Euclid, that all the radii of this circle are equal. Because it is a matter of perfect indifference (as far at least as the validity of the reasoning is concerned) from which of these properties we set out, it is surely not the less a matter of fact that such circles are to each other as the squares of their diameters.

After having stated this doctrine, Mr. Stewart proceeds to derive from it a view of the distinction between geometry, properly so called, and the various departments of what are commonly termed mixed mathematics; particularly the branch of it that has obtained the name of theoretical mechanics: in which, he thinks, 'it may be questioned whether the affectation of mathematical method has not been carried to excess; the essential distinction between physical and mathematical truths being studiously kept out of the reader's view, by exhibiting them both as nearly as possible in the same form.' The confusion, which he conceives to have occurred on this subject, he ascribes in the first place to the circumstance of the mechanical philosophy being inaccessible to all who have not made considerable proficiency in the mathematical sciences. Hence a taste for the former is in general grafted on an attachment to the latter; which gives rise, according to him, to a propensity for attributing to the doctrines of mechanics a systematic connection, which can never belong to any science that has its foundation laid in facts collected from experience and observation; — and, secondly, to the proneness to simplification, which in this instance is so much encouraged by the many beautiful analogies that are observable among different physical phænomena. In conformity with these views, he objects very strongly to the method adopted by several later writers on mechanical philosophy, of seeking to demonstrate a general theorem from which a variety of particular cases may be deduced; rather than establishing in the first instance the simplest case by direct experiment, and then deducing from it the general proposition. He exemplifies this mode in the case of the well known demonstration of the general property of the lever, derived from the principle of the composition and resolution of forces; whence the particular case, with which it might have seemed most natural to begin, namely, that in which the forces are parallel, is afterward deduced by

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the *fiction* of conceiving the parallel lines to meet at an infinite distance. It is surprising, he says, that this proof should have been considered as more satisfactory than the direct evidence of our senses. We presume that Mr. Ferguson would have deemed it just as surprising, that any one should regard Euclid's proof of the equality of the three angles of a triangle to two right angles as preferable to *his* proof of direct measurement. The method is objectionable on both occasions, and for the same reason; and it cannot be regarded in either as a proof, but only as an illustration. In the case of the triangle, all that we could say would be that, in this particular instance, the three angles taken together were *nearly* equal to two right angles; and, in the case of the lever, our conclusion could be nothing more than that the forces, or weights, were *nearly* in the inverse ratio of the arms of the lever to which they were applied.

In remarking on Dr. Hamilton's method of deriving this property of the lever from the principle of the composition and resolution of forces, Mr. Stewart observes in continuation, 'it could scarcely, *one should* think, have escaped him that every valid demonstration of the composition of forces must necessarily assume as a *fact*, that when a body is acted upon by a force parallel to a straight line given in position, this force has no effect either to accelerate or retard the progress of the body towards that line.' This fact is assumed, it may be replied, in exactly the same way in which the demonstration of the 32d proposition of Euclid assumes as a *fact* that, when a straight line crosses two parallel straight lines, the alternate angles are equal. Or perhaps Dr. Hamilton might have replied to the objection by stating the analogy in a different manner. He might say, we do not, in either case, assume a fact, but a definition; or, which comes to the same thing, an inference derived from a definition; in conformity with the view which Mr. Stewart has himself given of the assumptions on which geometrical reasoning is founded: 'I call that force parallel to a given straight line, which has no tendency to accelerate or to retard the progress of the body towards that line.' This is merely a definition of a parallel force, and nothing is unduly taken for granted in this definition: for, as we know nothing of force in itself, and can only judge of it by its effects, the sole way in which we can form or communicate any definite idea of it, with respect either to magnitude or direction, is by a reference to these effects. If Mr. Stewart chuses rather to call this a fact, then are we intitled to call the proposition, in which it is asserted that parallel straight lines will never meet, (and, by parity of reasoning,

soning, any of the other fundamental principles of geometry,) not a definition but a fact. According to his own principle, therefore, of which it is singular that he did not perceive the application to this case, geometrical and mechanical reasoning, as far as the original source of their evidence is concerned, are placed exactly on a footing.

We apprehend, however, that it will be found that the parallel between these two branches of science may be carried still farther. It is true that an appeal to direct experiments can be admitted in geometry only in the way of illustration: but its application, in what Mr. Stewart has very properly styled theoretical mechanics, is of precisely the same kind. If, for instance, we attempt to *illustrate* the forty-seventh proposition of Euclid by the ingenious method of superposition ascribed to Mr. Ferguson, it is very probable that the squares of the two sides of our triangle, when cut into parts according to the rule laid down, will nearly but not exactly cover the square of the hypothenuse: — but what do we infer from this? That the proposition is only nearly, not exactly, true? By no means, we deduce the proper inference that the figures employed, owing to the imperfection of our senses and instruments, did not exactly answer to the definitions of the mathematical quantities concerned; — and, in precisely the same manner, when we have deduced from theoretical principles the conclusion that bodies, descending along the chords of a circle set in a vertical plane, will all reach the lowest point in the same time, we are perfectly satisfied of the validity of this reasoning. Our confidence in it is not shaken if, on trying the experiment, the result should not exactly answer our expectations; from which circumstance, the only inference that we should feel ourselves authorized to deduce would be that the experiment was not correctly performed, the circle was not perfect, the bodies did not begin their descent at the same instant, proper allowance was not made for friction, the resistance of the air, &c.

The coincidences between the reasoning employed in theoretical mechanics and *theoretical geometry* (if we may be allowed the use of such a term in speaking of the investigations of geometricians, as distinguished from those practical operations to which the name *geometry* was originally applied,) multiply on us as we advance in their comparison. The ideas of extension and figure, not less than those of motion and force, are derived originally from the senses. In both cases, our inquiries may be pursued in a certain vague and rude manner by an immediate and constant reference to the evidence

evidence of sense: but no exact knowlege can be obtained in this way in either of these sciences, chiefly on account of the imperfection of our knowlege and our instruments of analysis. We know little or nothing of the principles on which the effects of friction, the rigidity of cords, the flexibility of bars of wood or metal, the resistance of the air, and a variety of other particulars essential to the accurate determination of any individual case, are to be estimated. Hence it is necessary, in our theoretical investigations, to abstract from these circumstances, in order to simplify the object of our examination, and adapt it to our limited faculties; and therefore, in transferring the results of these inquiries to the actual phænomena of nature, where these circumstances are to be taken into the account, a discrepancy occurs, in consequence of which we are apt to think that we may not perfectly confide in our theoretical principles. Yet this suspicion is founded in mistake; as decidedly as if we were to deduce a similar inference with regard to geometrical reasoning from a want of exact conformity between our theoretical conclusions, and the most accurate and carefully executed practical measurements. It is probable that no perfect circle or straight line exists in nature; — at least we know of none; any more than we know of rods perfectly inflexible or bodies perfectly elastic: but we abstract in this case also from these deviations or irregularities, as we call them, and for the same reason as before; viz. to simplify the object of our examination, and bring it down to the level of human conceptions. If it were not for this artifice, the theoretical investigation of the simplest theorem in geometry, or mechanics, would be too abstruse and complicated for the comprehension of the profoundest analyst. Unless we greatly mistake, it will be found, on comparing the reasoning used in geometry and mechanics with this view, that the conclusions deduced in such cases from definitions arbitrarily assumed, for the purpose already mentioned, have the same absolute and necessary truth; and that the very same lofty and imposing language, applied by Mr. Stewart to the former of these sciences, will appear to be equally applicable to the latter, considered as a mere theory: in which sense alone, indeed, such language is applicable to either.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

ART. V. *Prospectus and Specimen of an intended National Work.* By William and Robert Whistlecraft, of Stow-Market, in Suffolk, Harness and Collar-Makers. Intended to comprise the most interesting Particulars relating to King Arthur and his Round Table. Cantos III. and IV. 8vo. pp. 61. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1818.

WHEN we had read this continuation of a work of which we noticed the commencement in our Number for April, our recollection was forcibly drawn to the advice which that curiously compounded character Polonius gives to his son Laertes;

"Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar;"—

and we could not but speculate on the example furnished in these cantos of the difficulty of being the one without becoming the other. Though the author is evidently a man of taste and education, yet in his attempt to tell his story in conversational language, we fear that we must say that he has used common-places which come within the *veto* of the obsequious chamberlain; and in support of our charge we need only instance the line,

'Poor Pericles himself—*he went to pot.*'

The result of a comparison with the first two cantos of this specimen is by no means favourable to the present. Instead of manifesting that increased facility both of versification and expression which is in general the effect of practice, the author does not proceed so glibly as before; fewer detached passages of any marked excellence occur; and, except in one or two instances, so great a deficiency of vivacity is observable, that the writer appears to be really incumbered with the mercenary engagement to which he alludes in the first line, and to write doggedly on as

'If every stanza brought him in a crown.'

Notwithstanding these remarks, we still find much to admire and much to entertain: we shall therefore pursue our former plan, and present our readers with a slight analysis of the work, and attended by such extracts as may give them an idea of the poetry and style.

Instead of keeping the promise made at the conclusion of the former publication,

'A giant's education and his travels
Will occupy the next succeeding page,'

Messrs. Whistlecraft, after a lively exordium in which they represent the benefits of their engagement with their book-

seller, introduce us to 'fifty friars, fat and good,' inhabiting an antient abbey 'some ten miles off:'

'Between the monks and giants there subsisted,
In the first abbot's lifetime, much respect;
The giants let them settle where they listed;
The giants were a tolerating sect.
A poor lame giant once the monks assisted,
Old and abandon'd dying with neglect,
The prior found him, cur'd his broken bone,
And very kindly cut him for the stone.

'This seem'd a glorious, golden opportunity,
To civilize the whole gigantic race;
To draw them to pay tythes, and dwell in unity;
The giants' valley was a fertile place,
And might have much enrich'd the whole community,
Had the old giant liv'd a longer space;
But he relaps'd, and though all means were tried,
They could but just baptize him — when he died.'

This good understanding was increased by the friars' 'sober, cautious, and prudential' conduct, and by the love of music, which often led the giants

'To listen all the livelong summer night;'

and it continued without any interruption till the monks took it into their heads to indulge an ambition

'For bells of larger size, and louder tone;
Giants abominate the sound of bells,
And soon the fierce antipathy was shown,
The tinkling and the jingling, and the clangor,
Rous'd their irrational gigantic anger.'

The following is a very happy playful description of the effect of the bells among the mountains:

'Meanwhile the solemn mountains that surrounded
The silent valley where the convent lay,
With tintinnabular uproar were astounded,
When the first peal burst forth at break of day:
Feeling their granite ears severely wounded,
They scarce knew what to think, or what to say;
And (though large mountains commonly conceal
Their sentiments, dissembling what they feel,

'Yet) Cader-Gibbrish from his cloudy throne
To huge Loblommon gave an intimation
Of this strange rumour, with an awful tone,
Thund'ring his deep surprize and indignation;
The lesser hills, in language of their own,
Discuss'd the topic by reverberation;
Discoursing with their echoes all day long,
Their only conversation was, "ding-dong."'

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The next stanza but one is humorous:

'Historians are extremely to be pitied,
Oblig'd to persevere in the narration
Of wrongs and horrid outrages committed,
Oppression, sacrilege, assassination;
The following scenes I wish to have omitted,
But truth is an imperious obligation.
So — " my heart sickens, and I drop my pen,"
And am oblig'd to pick it up again.'

The siege is then described in an excellent specimen of monkish legendary Latin:

'*Erant rumores et timores varii;*
Dies horroris et confusionis
Evenit in calendis Januarii;
Gigantes, semen maledictionis
Nostri potentes impii adversarii,
Irascebantur campanarum sonis,
Horâ secundâ centum tres gigantes
Venerunt ante januam ululantes.

'*At fratres pleni desolationis,*
Stabant ad necessarium præsidium,
Perterriti pro vitis et pro bonis,
Et perduravit hoc crudele obsidium,
Nostri claustralis pauperis Sionis,
Ad primum diem proximorum Idium;
Tunc in triumpho fracto tintinnabulo,
Gigantes ibant alibi pro pabulo.

'*Sed frater Isidorus decumbebat*
In lecto per tres menses brachio fracto,
Nam lapides Mangonellus jaciebat,
Et fregit tintinnabulum lapide jacto;
Et omne vicinagium destruebat,
Et nihil relinquebat de intacto,
Ardens molinos, Casas, messuagia,
Et alia multa damna atque outragia.'

After a sly hit at the custom of owning the obligations of friends, by one of whom a translation has been furnished, the author proceeds to notice a difference in the abbey between the tintinnabularians and anti-tintinnabularians; the latter of whom, — 'the wise are always few', —

'Were over-borne, *canonicali voto.*'

Among the antis, is

'A prudent monk, their reader and librarian,'

who considers himself as a marked man; and an admirable description is given of his conduct under the suspicious inspection of his brethren. On the day of

— 'the

—— 'the first opening peal, the grand display,'

he determined to absent himself, lest

—— 'his ill-digested spleen,
Inflam'd by gibes, might lead him on to wrangle,
Or discompose, at least, his looks and mien;
So, with the belfry's first prelusive jangle,
He sallied from the garden-gate unseen,
With his worst hat, his boots, his line and angle,
Meaning to pass away the time, and bring
Some fish for supper, as a civil thing.'

Canto IV. opens with this pleasing description:

'A mighty current, unconfin'd and free,
Ran wheeling round beneath the mountain's shade,
Battering its wave-worn base; but you might see
On the near margin many a wat'ry glade,
Becalm'd beneath some little island's lee
All tranquil, and transparent, close embay'd;
Reflecting in the deep serene, and even
Each flower and herb, and every cloud of Heaven;

'The painted kingfisher, the branch above her,
Stand in the stedfast mirror fixt and true;
Anon the fitful breezes brood and hover,
Fresh'ning the surface with a rougher hue;
Spreading, withdrawing, pausing, passing over,
Again returning to retire anew:
So rest and motion, in a narrow range,
Feasted the sight with joyous interchange.'

The picture of '*The Friar fishing*' being completed, the chimes begin, and by their prophetic sounds prove that the story of Whittington is but a plagiarism. While engaged in the double occupation of musing and fishing, he hears

'Sounds of despite and ire, and direful dudgeon;
And soon across the river he espies,
In wrathful act, a hideous huge curmudgeon
Calling his comrades on with shouts and cries.'

The description of his activity on the occasion we shall give in the author's own words:

'He ran right forward, (pelted all the way,)
And bolted breathless at the convent-gate,
The messenger and herald of dismay;
But soon with conscious worth, and words of weight,
Gives orders which the ready monks obey:
Doors, windows, wickets, are blockaded straight;
He reinspires the convent's drooping sons,
Is here and there, and every where, at once.

'"Friends! fellow-monks!" he cried, "(for well you know
That mightiest giants must in vain essay

Across yon river's foaming gulf to go:)
The mountainous, obscure and winding way,
That guides their footsteps to the ford below,
Affords a respite of desir'd delay —
Seize then the passing hour!" — the monk kept bawling,
In terms to this effect, though not so drawling.'

'His words were these, "Before the ford is crost,
We've a good hour, — at least three quarters good —
Bestir yourselves, my lads, or all is lost —
Drive down this staunchion, bring those spars of wood;
This bench will serve — here, wedge it to the post;
Come, Peter, quick! strip off your gown and hood —
Take up the mallet, man, and bang away!
Tighten these ropes — now lash them, and belay.

'"Finish the job while I return — I fear
Yon postern-gate will prove the convent's ruin;
You, brother John, my namesake! stay you here,
And give an eye to what these monks are doing;
Bring out the scalding sweet-wort, and the beer,
Keep up the stoke-hole fire, where we were brewing:
And pull the gutters up and melt the lead —
(Before a dozen aves can be said,)

'"I shall be back amongst you." — Forth he went,
Secur'd the postern, and return'd again,
Disposing all with high arbitrement,
With earnest air, and visage on the main.
Concern of public safety fixt and bent;
For now the giants, stretching o'er the plain,
Are seen, presenting in the dim horizon
Tall awful forms, horrific and surprising —'

Just at this period, the 'poor dear abbot' dies in an apoplectic fit; and our friend the fishing or rather fighting friar, to prove that the bells were good prophets, is invested, *per acclamationem*,

—— 'with robes and ring
Crozier and mitre, seals and everything.'
* * * * * * * * * * *

'It often happens in the hour of need
From popular ideas of utility,
People are pitch'd upon for mere ability.'

Although the siege is carried on with great inveteracy by the giants, to the utter destruction of every thing 'beyond the convent's wall,' it causes very little annoyance of the friars within, owing to the good management of their newly elected prior.

'For in the garrison where he presided,
Neither distress, nor famine, nor disease,
Were felt, nor accident nor harm betided
The happy monks; but plenteous, and with ease,

All needful monkish viands were provided;
Bacon and pickled-herring, pork and peas;
And when the table-beer began to fail,
They found resources in the bottled-ale.

' Dinner and supper kept their usual hours;
Breakfast and luncheon never were delay'd,
While to the centries on the walls and towers
Between two plates hot messes were convey'd.
At the departure of the invading powers,
It was a boast the noble abbot made,
None of his monks were weaker, paler, thinner,
Or, during all the siege, had lost a dinner.' —

' The giant-troops invariably withdrew,
(Like mobs in Naples, Portugal, and Spain,)
To dine at twelve o'clock, and sleep till two,
And afterwards (except in case of rain),
Return'd to clamour, hoot, and pelt anew.
The scene was every day the same again;
Thus the blockade grew tedious.'

At last, however, the drowsy centry sees the giants' camp deserted, and the happy monks thus account for their release:

' And now the gates are open'd, and the throng
Forth issuing, the deserted camp survey;
' Here Murdomack, and Mangonel the strong,
' And Gordobuc were lodg'd,' and ' here,' they say,
' This pigsty to Poldavy did belong;
' Here Brindleback and here Phagander lay.'
They view the deep indentures, broad and round,
Which mark their posture squatting on the ground.

' Then to the traces of gigantic feet,
Huge, wide apart, with half-a-dozen toes;
They track them on, till they converge and meet,
(An earnest and assurance of repose)
Close at the ford; the cause of this retreat
They all conjecture, but no creature knows;
It was ascrib'd to causes multifarious,
To saints, as Jerom, George, and Januarius,

' To their own pious founder's intercession,
To Ave-Maries, and our Lady's Psalter;
To news that Friar John was in possession,
To new wax candles plac'd upon the altar,
To their own prudence, valour, and discretion;
To reliques, rosaries, and holy-water;
To beads and psalms, and feats of arms — in short,
There was no end of their accounting for't.'

The

The author explains it to us by stating that

> ' They went, in short, upon their last adventure,
> After the ladies — neither more nor less — '

Having congratulated himself on his story thus 'revolving on its centre,' he abruptly closes the canto, leaving still on hand the giant's memoirs, because

> ' —— this present copy must be sold:
> Besides, — I promis'd Murray t'other day,
> To let him have it by the tenth of May.'

Since our review of the two preceding cantos of this 'National Poem,' that of Beppo, with which we there contrasted it, has been acknowleged by Lord Byron. We shall feel rejoiced if the wit and liveliness of that production, together with the close of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage, (to the last canto of which we ought before to have called our readers' attention,) prove the forerunners of a composition from the noble author's pen in a style less sombre, and less selfish, more amiable and more attractive, than that which marked those for which he has lately claimed and forced the world's unwilling applause. It will be perceived that the author of this 'Specimen,' (why continue that title now?) though not equal to his noble rival even in his lighter honours, is obviously possessed of refined intellect and superior endowments. We therefore rather wish to meet him on a more elevated station. The stanza which he has here chosen, though entertaining for a short time, is as fatiguing as a jest-book, if carried on to a great length. Its composition also is so easy that we shall soon have shop-puffs and dinner-bills of fare done into like metre; — as we in fact have actually seen the notices prefixed to a recent number of a contemporary magazine. If this should be the case, we must not be surprized at finding the labours of the critic put into rhime, and his solemn opinion of a publication reduced to measure in an eight-line-stanza. *Exempli gratiâ*:

> The present work exhibits much variety,
> The grave, the gay, the lively, the severe,
> On all it touches with a strict propriety; —
> The author shews his intellect is clear,
> And that he's liv'd in very good society: —
> But still, we think, the work is rather dear.
> To please our readers in their different stations,
> We'll tell the story, with a few quotations.
> &c. &c. &c.

We hear, on good authority, that this work is the production of the Right Hon. John Hookham Frere.

ART. VI. *Ducatus Leodiensis:* or the Topography of the Ancient and populous Town and Parish of Leedes, and Parts adjacent, in the West Riding of the County of York. With the Pedigrees of many of the Nobility and Gentry, and other Matters relating to those Parts; extracted from Records, original Evidences and Manuscripts. By Ralph Thoresby, F.R.S. To which is added, at the Request of several learned Persons, A Catalogue of his Museum, with the Curiosities Natural and Artificial, and the Antiquities; particularly the Roman, British, Saxon, Danish, Norman and Scotch Coins, with modern Medals. Also a Catalogue of Manuscripts; the various Editions of the Bible, and of Books published in the Infancy of the Art of Printing. With an Account of some unusual Accidents that have attended some Persons, attempted after the Method of Dr. Plot. The Second Edition, with Notes and Additions. By Thomas Dunham Whitaker, LL.D. F.S.A. Vicar of Whalley, &c. Folio. 7l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

THIS work made its first appearance in the year 1712; and in the re-publication of it after the lapse of a century, it has experienced a much better fate than such compilations usually meet, by which the value attached to it is manifested. The author was born at Leeds, Aug. 16. 1658, and was descended from an antient and respectable family. He received his school-education in his native town, whence he was removed by his father to London, to acquire the knowlege of his intended calling as a merchant. Here a new and splendid scene of antiquities opened to him, to which he paid greater attention than to copying papers at a merchant's desk.

In 1678, he was sent to Rotterdam in order to learn the Dutch and French languages, and to complete his mercantile education: but, although the employment for which he was designed was not congenial to his disposition, and was therefore prudently abandoned, the knowlege which he gained in one dialect of the Teutonic language greatly facilitated his acquirement of the rest; by means of which he became a skilful etymologist of Saxon local names at home, — one of the first and most valuable accomplishments of an English topographer.

Mr. Thoresby's opinion respecting Leeds is that it was originally *Cair Loid coit*, one of the twenty-eight cities mentioned by Nennius; which had their origin from the Britons, but were afterward improved by the Romans. He thus states his sentiments on the occasion:

'Amongst these was *Cair Loid coit*, which the historians of darker ages apply to *Lincoln*, but I think without sufficient grounds, though they are herein followed by most of our late authors with an implicit faith. But in my opinion the name itself makes against them, *Kaer Loid coit*, or *Cair Luyt coyt*, as Archbishop

bishop *Usher*, who had the opportunity of collating nine manuscripts, writes it; but no author of antiquity writes it *Lindcoit*: Now *Coit* signifying wood, and taken appellatively, what reference can the monosyllable *Loid* or *Luit* have to *Lincoln*? But to *Leedes* it hath, or Loidy, as King *Alfred's Saxon* version of *Rede* hath it, and signifies in our modern dialect the city of *Loid in the Wood*. And I believe it will be allowed me by any who impartially considereth the circumstances of the actions wherein the place is mentioned, that they more genuinely suit *Leedes*, than *Lincoln*.* I am the more bold to expose my sentiments in this matter, because that having communicated them to the learned Dr. *Gale*, late Dean of *York*, they were so happy as to meet with his sanction: The *Britains* having driven the *Saxons* out of *Lincolnshire northward*, we find mention of *Cair Loid Coit*, as a place further northward than *Lincoln*; and *Cair Coit Celedon*. An 544, must rather be some place further north. *Celedon* in *British* signifies *Hassels*, and both *Haslewood*, and *Bede's Sylva Elmetæ* are in this tract; so that it might well be stiled *Loid in the Wood*.'

Mr. T.'s description of the town of Leeds, and of the several places which he notices, is succinct, but, as far as it goes, interesting. His principal object, however, is to give an account of the families which have resided there, or have been in any way connected with them; and in fulfilling this design he has taken great pains. The pedigrees which the work contains are numerous, and many of them of great length; and, in order that they may not be imperfect, in the present edition, we are informed by Dr. Whitaker that the requisite continuations have been made with fidelity and exactness.

The account of Leeds church will supply our readers with a specimen of the author's style and mode of proceeding:

'The parish-church (which was dedicated to St. *Peter*) is a very spacious and strong fabrick, an emblem of the church militant, black, but comely, being of great antiquity; it doth not pretend to the mode of reformed architecture, but is strong and useful. That there was a church here during the *Saxon* heptarchy, when the kings of *Northumberland* had their palace here, is more than probable; but 'tis indisputable, that in *William the Conqueror's* time there was, above 600 years ago, for that *Domesday-Book* (which I had the perusal of, by the favour of my honoured and kind friend Peter le Neve, Esq., *Norroy* King at Arms) says expressly *ibi est Ecclesia et Presbiter*, &c., and some parts of the present church may be said to be of that antiquity; but it was so far from being built with that expedition, that *Sardanapalus* (son of *Pull King of Assyria*, thence called *Sardan-Pull*) built his *cities*, *two* of

'* On a cooler consideration than our author's partiality to the subject would allow him to bestow upon it, I cannot but think, that Leeds has a fairer claim to be the Caer Loid Coit of Nennius than any other place.'

which

which his epitaph says he built in one day, that it is evidently the work of several ages, which have added both to its length, breadth, and height. By whom it was first founded I can by no means learn, but hope my involuntary ignorance will be excused, seeing it is the common fate of most *parochial churches*, which perhaps were generally built as they continue to be maintained, by the joint contributions of the inhabitants; for if they had been founded singly by any of the ancient families, who built the neighbouring abbeys, &c. in all probability they would have been registered in their annals and martyrologies, which contained the names, *obits*, and history of their benefactors. That most industrious and celebrated antiquary Mr. *Somner*, who had the advantage of all the ancient records in *Canterbury*, confesses that as to *parochial churches* there were but very few, which he could find either the time or author of the foundations of. The fabrick of this is plain, but venerable; the walls wholly of free-stone, the roof entirely covered with lead, except that part of the quire only that belongs to the impropriator: it is built after the manner of a cathedral with a large cross isle, and the steeple or tower in the middle of it. The dimensions of the church are, length 165 feet, breadth 97; height of the nave of the church 51, and of the steeple 96. Whoever shall compare these with those in the *New View of London*, will find there are but two in the 106 there mentoned (except the cathedrals of St. *Paul's* and *Westminster*) that exceed it in length, viz. St. *Saviour's*, *Southwark*, and St. *Thomas's*; and in the latter sure there must be a mistake in the figures * (as seems evident by the great disproportion betwixt 256 in length, and 33 only in breadth); but admitting it right, neither of these were originally designed for parish-churches, but were composed of several religious houses, which in later ages were made into one; and as to the breadth there is but one that equals it, and but one that surmounts it in the height of the body of the church, though many in their steeples, this being only a square tower (without spire) built rather for strength than beauty, and to contain eight large bells (besides the *tintinnabulum*) which ring in peel, and wherewith may be rung 40,320 changes, and which chime day and night at four, eight, and twelve: but what is most surprising to strangers, is the spaciousness of the quire or chancel, which is within the walls as much above 88 feet one way, as it wants of 60 the other; so that there is not a third part of those in *London*, the length of which churches may not stand within the breadth of this: and to add one word more, this is monthly filled (for the most part) twice round with devout communicants, (one of the most blessed prospects this world affords,) besides much greater numbers upon publick festivals.'

Mr. Thoresby's explanation of the meaning of the word *Riding* is so different from what is generally understood, and

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' * I find in the *Supplement* that it was the compositor's mistake, and that the length is but 56.'

yet

yet appears so just, that we cannot withhold it; and as he, at the same time, gives several interesting particulars respecting Tythings, Wapentakes, &c., we are induced to lay them also before our readers; hoping that the curious nature of the information will apologize for the length of the extract.

'Having finished the topography of *Leedes-Town*, and *Kirkgate*, I come now to the third division, called the *Main-Riding*; which tripartite division in the alphabetical tables annexed to *Speed's* Maps, and in Sir *Henry Spelman's Villare Anglicanum* occasioned a late author's mistake, who affirms, that there are three towns of that name in one *Wapentake*.* *Leedes* herein following the great mistress of the world, the city of *Rome*, which at first was thus divided; from whence the very word *tribus*, which signified a certain ward or local place of the city. That this division is of very great antiquity, is evident from the language; *Riding* being a corruption of the *Saxon* Þriðing, which grew obsolete after the coming of the *Normans*, and is retained chiefly, if not only, in *Yorkshire*; which county is divided into the like number of *ridings*, and had of old each a distinct *President* or *Bailiff*, under the *Sheriff* of the county: My honoured and kind friend *John Boulter* of *Gauthorp Hall*, Esq., has an ancient writing before the dates were inserted, attested by the *High-Sheriff*, and the *Bailiff* of the *West Riding*, and then the other gentry: I should be glad to learn when that office began, and how long it continued. This Þriðing or tripartite division is so rarely met with, that Sir *John Spelman* in the Life of King *Alfred* wholly omits it: I shall endeavour, therefore, to make it a little more plain, from the laws of King *Edward* the *Confessor*, where there is express mention thereof.

'We are to consider, therefore, that our *Saxon* predecessors, for the better conservation of peace, and administration of justice, ordained, that every native, home-born, lawful man, should be ranked in some *hundred*, or *tything*, when he was 14 years of age, or 12, as it was afterwards enacted in *Canutus's* Laws, And þe þillap þ ælc þeoman beo on hundþebe, &c. oþer xii þintpa, 12 *winters*; for 'twas the custom of the *Saxons*, as well as *Germans* and *Galls*, to number the time by *winters* and *nights*; the latter is yet retained in *se'nnight*, *fortnight*, for the space of seven or fourteen days.

'[Decuria, or Tithing.] Every *Decuria*, or *Tything* (teoþing) consisted of *ten families*, which were under the care of the *Decurio*, a *Civil Dean*, or *Tythingman*, who was answerable for the masters, as they were for their families. Here, saith the great *Selden*, we have the original of *Decenna*, or a *Court-leet*. The Normans continued the custom, but called it *Frank-pledge*, from the *French* frank *free*, and plege a surety. These *Decuriæ*, saith Mr. O. Walker in his Notes upon King *Alfred's* Life, are in Yorkshire called Tienmannatale, or *Tenmentale*, as it is writ in a curious manuscript of my honoured friend *Richard Thornton*, Esq.

'* Fuller's *Worthies in Yorkshire*, p. 215.'

called

called the Red Book, (*p.* 15.) *de Carucatis terræ in Richmondshire, &c.* "*In Gillingscira sunt* xx. 25. *et dimidium Tenmentale, i. e. decem hominum computationes;* and in another place, (p. 13.) xiiii. *Caracutæ terræ faciunt decem hominum computationen, i. e.* a ten men tale, *et quælibet prædicta comput. reddit annuatim* iiii *s.* vii *d.*" The view of *Frank-pledge* is continued in the *Court-leet* of *Royal jurisdiction* to be held annually on the feast of St. *Michael*, by *Magna Carta, cap.* 36., the power of which was determined by the statute 8 *Edw.* II. and 1 *Edw.* III., as we are told by an excellent glossographer (Dr. *Kennet*): so that now there is no other *Decuriæ* than the *Court-leet*, nor other security given for the King's peace, or the parties good behaviour to his fellow-subjects, than the person's own oath, when he pays his fealty to the lords of the mannor.

'[Hundred, or Wapentakes.] Ten of these *Decuriæ*, or *Tythings*, made the *Centuria*, or *Hundred*; these in some places (and particularly in these northern counties) are called *Wapentakes*, the reason of which denomination is distinctly mentioned in the laws of King *Edward the Confessor*; viz. when a person received the government of a *Wapentake*, at the appointed time and usual place, the elder sort met him, and when he was got off his horse, rose up to him; then he held up his spear, and took security of all present, according to custom; whoever came touched his spear with their's, and by this touching of armour were confirmed in one common interest; and thus from æpnu *weapons*, and tac a *touch*, or taccape *to confirm*, they were called *Wapentakes*; but here the reader is to be cautioned that he run not into the mistake of the learned editor, who takes *Ewerwickshire* for *Warwickshire*, whereas it is indisputably *Yorkshire*, as appears from ancient manuscripts, and coins minted here, &c.

'[Trihings, or Ridings.] The next partition in those early days of antiquity that was superior to the *Hundreds*, or *Wapentake*, were the *Trihings*, or *Ridings*, as they are now called, of which there is express mention in the laws of *Edward the Confessor*, (*cap.* 34.) '*Erant etiam et aliæ potestates super Wapentachia, quas vocabant* þriþinga, *quod erat tertia pars Provinciæ.*' To these were appeals made in such causes as could not be determined in the *Wapentakes*; and what could not be concluded in the *Riding*, was carried to the shire.

'This division of the county (as was hinted before) is wholly omitted by Sir *John Spelman*; and the later authors who have taken notice of it seem defective, both as to the etymology and the officer who presided therein; as to the former, all agree in general, that it was from Þpu *tres*, as containing three *Hundreds* or *Wapentakes*, but they wave the latter part of the word; and to let it pass so, might seem to reflect a greater honour upon the *manner of Leedes* (which not only contains the *Town*, but is commensurate with the utmost extent of the *Main-Riding*) as containing of old three *Hundreds* or *Wapentakes*; yet in truth (which is to be preferred before all things) it seems to me to note rather in general only the third division of a precinct, than to have any reference to the number of *Wapentakes*, of which there are no less than 22 in the three *Ridings*.

Ridings of this county; viz. five in the *east*, eight in the *north*, and nine in this of the *west*, which as the principal includes the *city of York* and the *Ainsty*, which last is so called I presume from the *French Ancienneté*. As to the termination, I prefer that of the local word ðing, or ðing, as it is more truly writ, before that in the printed edition of the *Saxon* laws which has dropped a letter; for whereas hing has no distinct signification, þing denotes a *cause* or *business*; and þing ꝛcop is rendered *forum, judicii exercendi locus*, the place where the courts were kept, and matters of judgment handled; so the supreme judicature, or highest court of *Island*, is called All-ping, now by the *Danes* Lands-þing, by the *Swedes*, Allmanna-thing. Of the same original is *Leighton in the Morning*, as it is commonly called and printed in *Speed*'s map of the West-Riding of *Yorkshire*; but the true orthography is *Moor*, or *Mor-thing*, as I have seen it writ in an ancient chart, and was to distinguish the place as belonging to that jurisdiction.'

In the latter part of the work, is contained the *Museum Thoresbyanum*, or a Catalogue of the Antiquities preserved in the Repository of the Author; and the collection may truly be called very large when it is considered as belonging to an individual. It consisted of Hebrew, Samaritan, and Greek Coins, 27 in number; Roman Monies and Medals, 1090; British, Runic, Saxon, and Danish Medals, 107; Norman, English, and Scotch Coins and Medals, 786; Medals and Monies of foreign States, 405: all of which are here described. The collection also included a variety of other rarities, likewise described, and classed under the following heads; viz. Animals, Plants, Metals, Minerals, artificial Curiosities, Editions of the Bible, Manuscripts 262 in number, antient printed Books, Autographs, antient Writings, and Roman Antiquities: to which is added, an Account of unusual Accidents that have attended some persons.

The volume is embellished with eleven large engravings and two vignettes, finished in a masterly manner; and the armorial bearings, with which it abounds, are impressions from wood-cuts, well executed. In the ornamental letters which adorn the beginnings of the sections, great richness of fancy is exhibited; and the typographical department is performed in a superior style: so that, regarding also the excellence of the paper, we may say that the work makes a most respectable appearance.

ART.

ART. VII. *Loidis and Elmete*; or an Attempt to illustrate the Districts described in those Words by Bede; and supposed to embrace the lower Portions of Aredale and Wharfdale, together with the entire Vale of Calder in the County of York. By Thomas Dunham Whitaker, LL.D. F.S.A. Vicar of Whalley, and Rector of Heysham, in Lancashire. Folio. pp. 406. 7l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE have similar satisfaction in announcing that this volume appears on the like superior paper, and in the same extra style of typographical execution, with that which we have just mentioned in the like terms; and, indeed, with respect to the many places which they conjointly describe, the second is a kind of supplement to the former: but why two works, relating to the same district, should be published by the same person at the same time, we are at a loss to conceive. Instead of giving a new edition of Thoresby's book, which, whatever may have been its value, is become in many respects obsolete, it would surely have been more advisable to have digested the information which it contains and inserted it in the present; which in that case would have been much more perfect, and the inquirer would have to peruse only one volume instead of two.

At the commencement, the author proposes to 'give a succinct account of the district which is supposed to be included by Bede under the names of *Loidis* and *Elmete*; as their indefinite outline, coinciding at present with no district ecclesiastical or civil, frees the topographer from the embarrassment which is occasioned by the certainty and contraction of modern limits, while it enables him occasionally to take a wider range in order to embrace an interesting object, and at the same time to neglect many claims to notice, which would have been created by a rigid adherence to the plan of a parochial survey.' Of this district the flourishing town of Leeds is considered as the centre; and the writer states that a circle drawn round it, with a radius of ten miles, while it would sometimes embrace objects which he feels no inclination to omit, would shut out perhaps yet fewer near its circumference of which he should regret the exclusion: but, when that would be really the case, he should feel little scruple in overstepping the line.

This volume is confined more particularly to subjects strictly topographical than the preceding production of Mr. Thoresby; such as more minute descriptions of the places, with their civil and ecclesiastical history: but it adduces some pedigrees and armorial bearings which were omitted in the *Ducatus*.

In furnishing our readers with extracts, in order that they may form a judgment of the merit of the work, we shall in the first place select the description of the church of Leeds, that it may be compared with the foregoing:

'All attempts to retrieve the origin of our old Saxon churches have been, with a few exceptions, and under some very particular circumstances, vain. The church of Leeds, whatever may have been its antiquity, does not appear to have been one of those first foundations whose parishes from their vast extent were afterwards cantoned out and subdivided, as population and wealth increased. The boundaries of this parish appear never to have changed. Neither in the state of population at that time was there any reason for curtailing them. Scarcely an inhabitant was more than four miles from his parish church, and the situation was by no means central. Placed in a rich and fertile bottom, on the bank of a pleasant and tranquil river, the Saxon rector saw his charge extending about two miles downward, and scarcely twice as much upward, defended on either side by slopes of partial cultivation, and by a much greater extent of native woods. The town was then no more than a village, and villages, though nominally the same as at present, were little groups of huts only, inhabited by a few ploughmen and shepherds. Whatever might be their ignorance, all had devotion at least, and would resort to their parish-church with an eagerness and regularity not always imitated by those who are more enlightened. A church, however, of great extent was not wanted for their reception; it does not seem probable that the whole population of the parish exceeded 1000 souls, and the Saxon churches were seldom either needlessly spacious or magnificent. The whole of the original structure, the outline of which is now undoubtedly included within the present extended fabric, consisted probably of a single nave and choir. But subsequent demolitions and substitutions have removed every vestige of this primitive edifice. In the reign of John there is satisfactory evidence that Leeds was become a considerable town, and long before that period the reign of Henry the First was a great æra of church building, in which the Norman lords adapted the religious edifices on their manors to their own more extended ideas of propriety and magnificence. There is therefore little doubt that a Norman church arose in this interval. But this in its turn has given way, and the oldest part now remaining of the parish church of Leeds, namely the spacious and handsome nave, may be referred to the time of Edward III., when the first introduction of manufactures, of which that monarch was the father in England, had introduced wealth and munificence, their usual attendants. The rebuilding of the choir would devolve on the religious appropriators, who were seldom very forward in such works. Thus probably the church remained till the reigns of Henry the 7th and 8th, during which period the whole of the north aisle from east to west was added, and the south aisle rebuilt. The transept is probably coeval with the nave, and both,

both, as appears by the form of the arches connected with it, with the tower.'

The account of Kirkstall-abbey will be perused with delight by the lover of ecclesiastical antiquities.

'The village of Hedingly is celebrated for an object of certain antiquity, and, in the records of monastic history, of unrivalled fame. This is the abbey of Kirkstall, which, by its superlative beauty as an object, has almost undone the present work. As a subject of monastic history also it has been nearly exhausted by the labours of Dugdale, and his follower Stephens. Antiquaries are as familiarly acquainted with the circumstances of its foundation, the characters of its early abbots, and the particulars of its early discipline, the ruin of its revenues by improvidence, and the assistance by which they were restored, as if the transaction had passed before their eyes. Draftsmen and landscape-painters, good and bad, have done their parts to delight or to glut the public taste with this inchanting ruin, and the acutest curiosity might almost look in vain for a point which has not been represented. The general difficulty of access to the cloister court has fortunately left one aspect of this noble building inviolate, and it has not been neglected by the draftsman. Happy would the author of this work have esteemed himself if, while he was permitted to inspect the cloistered recesses of the monks of Kirkstall, which are withheld from vulgar curiosity, he had also been enabled to look into the original memorials of their manners and habits. But no such document relating to Kirkstall, as the Compotus of Bolton, which enabled him to throw so strong a light on the manners of the canons, appears to exist, and he must be contented with the alternative of repeating what is familiar even to satiety, or of gleaning what little of new or curious in its records the copious harvests of his predecessors have left behind.

'The architecture, however, of Kirkstall lies open to much and original observation. The great merit of this structure, as a study for those who are desirous of assigning by internal evidence a proper date to every ancient building, is its unity of design and execution. Kirkstall-abbey is a monument of the skill, the taste, and the perseverance of a single man. Accordingly, there are in the original fabric no appearances of after-thought, no deviations from the first plan. Not only the arrangement, proportions, and relations of the different apartments are rigidly conformed to that peculiar principle, which prevailed in the construction of religious houses erected for, rather than at, the expense of the monks; but every moulding and ornament appears to have been wrought from models previously studied, and adapted to the general plan. Deviating by one step from the pure Norman style, of which the present volume affords many specimens from seventy to forty years before the commencement of this fabric, the columns of the church are massy as the cylinders of the former age, but channelled rather than clustered; the

the capitals are Norman; the inter-columniations, though narrow, yet nearly one-third wider than those of the most massy Saxon; the arches, which surmount them, are grooved and moulded with an evident relation to the columns. One feature of the pure Norman is wanting in this, though a building of much higher dignity than those churches in which it is often found. Even on the great west door of the church, there are no basso relievos or other enrichments of sculpture, but though the entrance is deep and complex, and has had detached single shafts beneath each of its members, there appears to have been a studied abstinence from every thing gaudy and ornamental. Yet the architect, who designed Kirkstall, had within three miles a model to resort to, which would have suggested a great variety of elaborate enrichments in the highest perfection of recent masonry. I mean the church of Addle. The north-east door out of the cloister into the church has been more laboured than the rest, and has a free and well cut cabled ornament about the capitals. The central column of the original chapter-house has been surrounded by slender detached columns of which the bases yet appear: one of the earliest (perhaps the very earliest) specimens of a style, which became universal in England about a century later, and disappeared as suddenly as it had become fashionable. In the vaulted apartments south of the chapter-house we have the most convincing proofs that the Norman, through its immediate predecessor the Saxon, was merely a debased copy of Roman architecture. The proportions of the single-shaft cylindrical columns have a very Doric air, though a classical architect would not have sprung arches or vaultings from cylinders. These apartments, which are now accessible only on the east, originally opened into the cloister-court, from which the varied perspective, the broken masses of alternate light and shade diversifying the gloom, must have been admirably adapted to the solemnity of the monastic life. In the annexed engraving, this effect (with whatever success) has been attempted to be restored. Correct measurements of the several apartments have been made, their several projections accurately laid down, and the original effect, on the supposition that their arched door-ways once more received a portion of light from the cloisters on the west, as well as their narrow apertures to the east, has been restored, as far as possible, according to the rules of perspective.

The great kitchen of Kirkstall, together with a suite of apartments extending eastward from the south-east corner of the quadrangle towards the foundations of the abbot's lodgings, is of much later date than the rest; and an imprudent superstructure on the original tower, which rose but little above the acute angled roof of the church, overweighted one of the four great columns at the intersection, which after giving warning for several years of its approaching fall, was suddenly crushed by the vast superincumbent pile on Wednesday night, January 27. 1779, and brought down in its ruin more than two sides of the tower. Considered merely as a ruin, the effect of the church was certainly

improved by this catastrophe; but the visible detachment of the end of the north transept, and above all of the great east window from the adjoining walls, which might, yet be prevented from increasing by the application of buttresses, threatens, if neglected, to reduce this noble remain to a state of yawning dilapidation, which will be deplored when it is too late.

'It is a trifling circumstance, but not undeserving of mention as a trait of ancient manners, that within a few days after the fall of the tower the writer of this account discovered imbedded in the mortar of the fallen fragments several little smoking-pipes, such as were used in the reign of James the First for tobacco; a proof of a fact which has not been recorded, that prior to the introduction of that plant from America the practice of inhaling the smoke of some indigenous vegetable prevailed in England.

'Some depredations we know were beginning to be committed on "Christal abbey," for public purposes, at Leeds, as early as the reign of Elizabeth: but its distance of three miles from the town, and the introduction of brick when it began rapidly to increase in buildings, have happily prevented it from being converted into a quarry of stone ready hewn, in which case a few heaps of rubbish or inequalities of surface, a wrought moulding, or a mass of groutwork, might alone have indicated the place where "the gloom of these ancient cells, the variety of chapels, and remnants of the abbey shattered by the encroachments of ivy, and surrounded by many a sturdy tree, the lofty towers, and long perspectives of the church detain" every man of taste and feeling, as they detained Mr. Gray, "for many delightful hours."'

'Our last quotation shall be the passage which gives the etymology of Halifax, with a description of the situation of the town and parish:

'Last of the dependencies on the Saxon parish of Dewsbury is Halifax, a tract of nearly seventeen miles in length, which terminates the vale of East Calder. This is a singularly compounded name, half Saxon and half Norman; which not having been understood, has occasioned the invention of an idle fable to explain it. It appears, however, to have been no fable that in the deep valley, then embosomed in woods, where the parish church now stands, was an hermitage dedicated to St. John the Baptist; the imagined sanctity of which attracted a great concourse of pilgrims in every direction. Four ways by which the modern town of Halifax is entered still distinctly point at the parish church as their common centre, though at one extremity of the place. These were the roads by which the pilgrims approached the object of their devotion, and hence the name, Halifax, or holy ways, for fax in Norman French is an old plural noun, denoting highways. Thus Carfax in Oxford (a case exactly in point) is the four roads; and Fairfax, whatever may be pretended to the contrary, is neither more nor less than the fair roads. I know but

but of one other instance in which the latter syllable of this compound occurs, and that is Balifax or Bala-fax; meaning the roads to the outlet of a loch, in Ireland.

'This hermitage, however, the approaches to which must have received their name very soon after the Conquest, became at a very short period afterward, the parent of a parish-church, to which was attached a wild, and almost unpeopled, district of vast extent. The inconveniences of superstition have, in this instance, been felt during seven centuries; for the church which, after a vast increase of population, continued for half its duration, to the present time, without the aid of more than two chapels, is situated almost in a corner of the parish; and the genius of commerce itself, which usually despises ancient prejudice, and attends to its own convenience alone, has in this instance been made to bend to the ancient religion of the place. The respective situations of a great trading town and of a sequestered hermitage might appear to be little adapted to each other, and an early separation might have been expected between them; yet so it is, that within two miles of a fine open valley, the great line of communication between the eastern and western seas, and on a navigable stream, the principal town of this extensive and populous district, after every improvement which wealth and skill could apply in the diversion of roads, can only be approached by ascending or descending a precipice. Nature and common sense would have pointed out Elland as the proper site for the capital of the parish of Halifax. The whole district now composing this great parish may be considered as one valley with its numerous collateral forks, bounded at very unequal and constantly varying distances, by two high and barren ridges of moorstone. The general appearance of the bottoms is pleasing and picturesque. Scarcely a foot of level ground appears, excepting the alluvial lands, which are unusually fertile. The sides of the hills immediately above are hung with woods of native oak, which delights in the clefts and crevices of sandstone, though it rarely attains, in such situations, the bulk and majesty of form which it acquires in deeper soils. So various is the course of the principal valley, that the eye is never fatigued by resting on one uniform and protracted expanse, but delights in sudden and unexpected turns, producing new and still changing beauties. Above these are long and widely extended slopes, where art, and expense which manufactures alone could have afforded, have triumphed over what otherwise would have been deemed unconquerable barrenness, and produced a verdure not unequal to that of native fertility. Above all, appear the purple ridges of the mountains, defying all the power of man, and destined for ever to contrast the original face of savage nature with the effects of toil and industry. On the brows of these hills frowns many a sturdy block of freestone, sometimes, perhaps, worn away by storms to a narrow and moveable point, which the fondness of antiquarian fancy has decreed to be druidical. To such purposes it is certainly possible that they may have been adapted: those wonderful architects did not waste their unknown

and astonishing powers where nature had prepared the way, and where a little excavation, or the removal of a slight preponderance, would suffice to produce a moveable fulcrum and a perceptible balance. The powers which erected Stonehenge would in such instances be suspended, and the effect would be the same. Still, where the hand of man is not distinctly visible, where it is possible that nature, or time, or accident, may have produced the same appearances, positive evidence is required to prove that they have been employed by the first ministers of superstition to astonish and overawe the first rude inhabitants of the country. From the boundary of Lancashire to the valley which separates the townships of Halifax and Ovenden from North Owram, the whole basis of the parish is gritstone. Immediately to the east of this valley, argillaceous strata, with their general concomitants, stone and iron, once more appear; and to this cause, together with the copiousness and rapid descent of its numerous brooks, the parish of Halifax is indebted for its wealth and population. Unequal surfaces, rapid streams, and plentiful fuel, are the soul of manufactures.'

Fifty-four large engravings, and 18 vignettes, most of them very handsomely executed, decorate this volume; which is also embellished with numerous ornamental capital letters. Were we to reason *à priori*, we should be disposed to think that fine paper, large margins, elegant typography, and expensive decorations, would not be most appropriate for books of this nature, inasmuch as they are intended to be chiefly books of reference, and the information which they contain, being for the most part of local interest, is therefore not calculated for general perusal: but, when we see them edited in so superior a style, we are led to conclude that they are accommodated to the taste of the times: for surely the proprietors would not run the risk of so much expence, unless they were satisfied that the publications would be the more in request on account of their splendid appearance.

ART. VIII. *Narrative of an Expedition to explore the River Zaire,* by Captain Tuckey, &c.

[*Article concluded from our last Number.*]

RESUMING our report of this interesting but melancholy detail, we have now to direct our attention, first, to

PROFESSOR SMITH'S JOURNAL.

The previous studies and attainments of this Norwegian naturalist, his botanical rambles among the mountains of his native country, of Scotland, of the Canary Islands, &c. and his unwearied and undiminished ardour of research, eminently qualified him for the station to which he was appointed in this ill-

ill-fated expedition: with respect to which, it seems unavoidable to remark that the tender adieus of his scientific fellow-traveller, Von Buch, and of his other friends in England, may be said to give a pathetic and ominous tone to the very commencement of his diary. As to the incidents and observations recorded while the ships passed down Channel, they are such as would naturally attract the attention of an inquisitive foreigner; and the latitude of the Canaries renewed recollections of happy hours that were never to return. The amount of marine animals hitherto observed was limited to a number of porpoises, — two large birds, (whose species, in the distance at which they were seen, could not be ascertained,) — some *Medusæ*, supposed to belong to the genus *Pellucida*, — a small Whale, to which two or three species of *Lepas* adhered, — a small Turtle, — and a small *Cancer*, conjectured to be the *Fulgens* of Sir Joseph Banks. About the tropic of Cancer, *Holothuria physalis*, a minute eatable *Velilla*, and a luminous *Medusa* with four *tentacula*, were very frequent.

As the expedition touched at St. Jago, some opportunity was afforded to the naturalists for exploring the surrounding country, which presents manifest indications of volcanic agency; and the interesting vegetation of these regions, which is well portrayed, compensated for the misadventures under which it was contemplated. The Professor's catalogue of the plants that he observed is arranged according to their geographical distribution, and comprizes two new species of *Boerhavia*, *Herniaria illicebroides*, *Zygophyllum stellulatum*, *Lavendula apiifolia*, *Polycarpea glauca*, and other novelties.

From St. Jago to the African coast, the occurrences noticed are neither very numerous nor particularly interesting. Dark clouds, with heavy rain and lightning, prevailed about the peak of Fogo. When the squall had subsided, a southerly wind, which blew from the third till the tenth of May, carried the vessels far into the Bay of Guinea; where innumerable shoals of fish, especially Albicores and Bonitos, were swimming in all directions. On the 23d of May the line was crossed, with the usual grotesque ceremonies.

'We continued to steer towards the west till the 26th, but the wind veering more and more to the eastward, it was resolved to try the other course along the coast. The sea is here uncommonly abundant in fish. The whole surface is often put in motion by the flying-fishes, when chased by others. Their number is immense. Shoals of them constantly surrounded the vessel, and at night they give out a white light, resembling that of the moon,

when reflected by the sea. It was also chiefly at night that we were enabled to catch with the net the greatest number of Mollusca and Crustacea. Many different substances contribute to make the surface of the sea light. Some parts of the bodies of most of the Crustacea have certain glittering points, and two or three species of crabs were perceived to give out the most brilliant light. The points which are to be seen on the Mollusca are larger, but less bright. But that luminous appearance which diffuses itself over the whole surface of the sea arises from a dissolved slimy matter which spreads its light like that proceeding from phosphorus. The most minute glittering particles, when highly magnified, had the appearance of small and solid spherical bodies.'

Another appearance of the water is thus explained:

'Some days ago, the sea had a colour as of blood. Some of us supposed it to be owing to the whales, which at this time approach the coasts in order to bring forth their young. It is however a phenomenon which is generally known, has often been described, and is owing to myriads of infused animalculæ. I examined some of them taken in this blood-coloured water: when highly magnified, they do not appear larger than the head of a small pin. They were at first in a rapid motion, which however soon ceased, and at the same instant the whole animal separated into a number of small spherical particles.'

On reaching the mouth of the Loango Luisa, it was observed that this river is called *Caconga* in the chart, and that no river exists in the place at which the Loango Luisa is marked.

Dr. S. relates, with considerable minuteness, the progress of the party up the river Zaire, as far as *Cooloo*, or *Kullu*, opposite to the cataract, from the 6th of July to the 17th of August. The banks, in many places, seemed to consist of mica-slate; and the vegetation to be characterized by long grass, thickets of climbers, different sorts of palm-trees, and various plants, of which even the genera could not, at that late season, be determined. Monkeys were occasionally observed; and the indications of Hippopotami were abundant. As the river became impassible near the fall of Yallalla, it was resolved to undertake a land-journey of four days.

'On reaching the high land, the country assumed its usual appearance, which resembles very much that of old orchards, composed of stunted Annonas, and three other sorts of trees. Having soon after reached the hill on which the banza stands, and passed through the lofty Palms and Adansoniæ in which the village is buried, a view of the river opened all at once upon us, and we discovered the celebrated fall of Yallalla, at a distance of about a mile and a half. But how much

much were we disappointed in our expectations on seeing a pond of water only, with a small fall of a few hundred yards! Yet, if these *few hundred yards* refer to the *height* of the cascade, it cannot, certainly, be deemed inconsiderable.—Most of the natives whom our people encountered appeared to have been attracted by curiosity, and to have possessed little information relative to the country. At Kullu, Mr. Tudor, and several of the men, became quite exhausted with fatigue, and were attacked by fever. Dr. Smith complains, indeed, that most of the men were unfit for a long march, and that the few marines who accompanied the expedition were of the veteran battalion: but the editor pointedly remarks that 'there is no such battalion; that the oldest marine was not 40; and that all were stout healthy volunteers.' From this mis-statement, we might feel somewhat inclined to question the strict accuracy of the learned journalist; and to lament that his notes were never subjected to his own revision, nor to that of his friends, whose corrections he would probably have solicited.

The aspect and population of the country visibly improved as Dr. Smith and his companions proceeded on their final tour. 'The river had now the appearance of one of our northern lakes; its banks were covered with wood, and in some parts of it were rocks rising out of the surface in the form of a horse-shoe. Canoes again made their appearance, and renewed our hopes. We were at the beginning of a country evidently capable of an extensive cultivation, with a fine navigable river, with abundance of provisions for sale, and with an increased population. The evening was spent in hunting after the hippopotami, which snorted close by us at the point of the bay; and they were so numerous, that we could not say it was their fault if the chase was unsuccessful.'

In the contemplation of the majestic and smiling scenery, however, to which this zealous naturalist had now arrived, his journal is abruptly closed. His hurried memoranda, though penned under many disadvantages, convey, in the form of short and detached sentences, much professional information; while pity and justice alike forbid that we should scan their merits with the rigour of literary criticism.

The *Appendix* next calls for our attention. It consists of seven articles, of which No. I. contains a Vocabulary of the Malemba and Embomma Languages.

No. II. is intitled *Observations on the Genus Ocythoë of Rafinesque, with a Description of a new Species*, by William

Elford Leach, M.D. F.R.S. — This paper is reprinted from the Philosophical Transactions, and has been already introduced in our lxxxist volume, p. 168, 169.

No. III. is also a paper which has already appeared in the Philosophical Transactions, and has been mentioned by us as above, on *the Distinctions between the Ova of the Sepia and those of the Vermes Testacea that live in Water*, by Sir Everard Home.

No. IV. *A general Notice of the Animals taken by Mr.* John Cranch, *during the Expedition to explore the Source of the River Zaire.* — This list is much more limited than we could have anticipated. The only mammiferous quadrupeds mentioned are *Calitrix Sabæa*, of Audebert, and three young lions, which died in as many days, apparently from having been fed on *soaked bread.* — Of the thirty-six birds enumerated, most had been previously announced by Levaillant, or Savigny, or by less eminent ornithologists. The new species are, *Hirundo Smithii*, *Perdix Cranchii*, *Plotus Congensis*, and *Sterna senex*, each of which is shortly defined. — Among the Reptiles, besides *Trionix Ægyptiacus* (of which the head only was sent home in spirits), mention is made of *Coluber Palmarum*, and *C. Smithii*, both non-descripts. — Eighty sorts of fish, caught during the voyage, are passed nearly in silence, Mr. Cranch *not having yet studied the marine fishes.* Some of a supposed new genus, allied to *Leptocephalus*, were taken on the African coast; and three new species, denominated *Silurus Congensis*, *Pimelodus Cranchii*, and *Oxyrhynchus deliciosus*, were found in the river. — Under the *Cephalopoda* of Leach, we meet with the three genera, *Ocythoë*, *Cranchia*, and *Loligo*; the first comprizing the *Cranchii*, the second, the *scabra* and *maculata*, and the third, the *Banksii*, *leptura*, and *Smithii*, exhibiting characters considerably different from those of the *Loligines* of the European seas. — Nine new species of Barnacles, and some of *Pentalasmis*, were also discovered. — The collection of *Crustacea* furnishes the characters of several new genera, and of many species, which we cannot stay to particularize. — Of the insects, only thirty-six species reached England; the rest having been entirely destroyed by plunderers of the same class of animals, and by damp. It also appears that a box, containing specimens of marine animals, and a very large portion of the birds, was lost. — On the whole, we had augured a more ample accession to the zoological nomenclature than Mr. Cranch's documents have supplied; and that gentleman's observations do not seem to have extended to the manners and habits of the species which he has described.

No. V.

No. V. we shall beg leave to displace for a moment, with the intention of paying our respects to it finally, and at some length.

In No. VI. which is a letter addressed to Mr. Barrow, Mr. Konig, of the British Museum, comments with great perspicuity and judgment on the few *Specimens of Rocks* that were collected by the voyagers, on the banks of the narrows of the Zaire, and which were presented to that national repository. With the exception of coarse ferruginous sand-stone, and plastic clay, they are all of a primitive character; most of them consisting of granitic compounds, in which the felspar predominates, with a profusion of minute precious garnets, disseminated in their substance. Gneiss, primitive green-stone, hornblend-rock, and different modifications of massive quartz, are likewise quoted. As the characters of these rocks are much assimilated to those of the geological formations beyond the ocean, to the west, Mr. Konig conceives it to be extremely probable 'that the mountains of Pernambuco, Rio, and other adjacent parts of South America, were primevally connected with the opposite chains that traverse the plains of Congo and Loango.'

'The quartz mentioned by Captain Tuckey and Professor Smith, as being found in large masses, on the summit of Fidler's Elbow, belongs to the variety called fat-quartz: the fragments have mica adhering to them, and are here and there stained of a blood-red colour. Some specimens of brown iron-stone, massive and friable, have likewise been found on this hill. A ticket written by Capt. Tuckey, and affixed to one of them from the *highest summit*, informs us that a globule of some metal, either gold or copper, has been seen adhering to one of the cavities, by Dr. Smith; but no such observation has been communicated in this gentleman's journal: the lump, however, bears evident marks of having been exposed to the action of fire. There is scarcely any appearance of metals in the rocks near the lower parts of the Zaire; if, therefore, the accounts which the missionaries have given of the great abundance of every description of ores in Congo extend to the banks of that river, it must be higher up; where, according to Dr. Smith's account, the rock-formation appears to adopt a different character. The specimens from Condo-Sono, Banza Nokki, and Benda, consist of sienite, with green hornblende, and a rock composed of feldspar and quartz, with thickly disseminated particles of magnetic iron-stone, instead of mica or hornblende. It is probable that the primitive trapp occurs here in beds subordinate to the gneiss and mica-slate, of which a few specimens are sent, together with some others from the same parts, which appear to be flint-slate.'

Specimens of two varieties of compact lime-stone, one of which is magnesian, are the only transmissions from above the Falls.

No. VII.

No. VII. *Hydrographical Remarks from the Island of St. Thomas, to the Mouth of the Zaire.* — This concluding article, which exhibits a continuous record of reckonings, soundings, bearings, rates of currents, &c. is not susceptible of abridgement or analysis: but it will not be overlooked by the votaries of nautical science, especially as it indicates some considerable errors in the charts of Laurie and Whittle, and of Arrowsmith, and affects the accuracy of several of Grandpré's assertions.

No. V. now demands our notice. It consists of *Observations, Systematical and Geographical, on Professor Christian Smith's Collection of Plants, from the Vicinity of the River Congo*, by Robert Brown, F. R. S. — The author of this communication we have, on a former occasion, designated as the most learned botanist living; and we say *learned*, because all his works prove that indefatigable labour, joined to the unparalleled and we may add exclusive advantages which he enjoys as successor of Dryander in the Banksian library, have enabled him to acquire so much knowlege, rather than any natural predilection for botany. Indeed we have heard that bad health, when he was a medical student at Edinburgh, forced him to desert the nauseating theatre of Monro for the fragrant dissections of herbs; and it is fortunate that this was the case: since, though to excel in what is now universally deemed the most important branch of this delightful science, the natural affinities of species and genera, requires a peculiar taste and eye, which must be given to the botanist, as to the poet, *à priori*, by the Deity, yet abilities like those of Mr. B. will ever shine forth and illustrate any subject on which they are exerted. In so extensive a field as this, also, — for we doubt whether more than two-thirds of the vegetables existing on our planet are yet described, — a great portion of drudgery must be performed, to which labourers of the very highest talents will never submit.

In communicating his observations on Professor *Schmidt's* herbarium, as that lamented botanist formerly spelt his own name, Mr. Brown follows the plan adopted in his Appendix to Captain Flinders's Voyage, first stating what relates to the primary divisions of *Dicotyledones*, *Monocotyledones*, and *Acotyledones*: secondly, noticing all that is most remarkable in the several natural orders; and, thirdly, comparing the vegetation on the line of the river Congo with that of other countries. — We regret that, both in that work and this, Mr. B.'s chief delight has been to express his meaning in the greatest number of words; and it will not be always easy to do him justice if we abridge them. This, however, we must attempt,

without adhering to his fashion of employing one particular epithet incessantly. In his former essay, "*Maximum*" was the running favourite; in this, the adjective "*Remarkable*" supplants that noun-substantive: but in botany these Ritornels tire the ear as well as the mind, and fail to produce such happy effects as Mr. Liston's exclamations "*Prodigious*" and "*my Conscience,*" in the dramas founded on Mr. B.'s celebrated countryman's Tales.

1st, The number of species in the Congo herbarium somewhat exceeds 600; viz. *Dicotyledones*, 460, *Monocotyledones*, 113, *Acotyledones*, 33. After having collated these numbers with those in the herbariums of Adanson, Smeathman, Brass, and Afzelius, the last of whom collected 1200 species, Mr. B. says that he deems them sufficient to determine 'the proportional numbers both of the primary divisions and the principal natural orders of the tract examined,' — to one another, we suppose he means, as well as connected with climate; and, treading in the steps of the illustrious Humboldt, he pursues this subject *con molto amore.*

2dly, The natural orders are 87, besides a few genera not referable to any yet established: more than half of them, however, belong only to nine, namely, *Filices*, *Gramineæ*, *Cyperaceæ*, *Convolvulaceæ*, *Rubiaceæ*, *Compositæ*, *Malvaceæ*, *Leguminosæ*, and *Euphorbiaceæ*. These and others are taken in the following order; contrary to what appears in our judgment a natural series.

Anonaceæ. Three species: one is *Anona Senegalensis*, doubted whether of that genus by Dunal, but a legitimate species, as appears by the ripe fruit from Congo, and the only one not indigenous in America; for *Anona Asiatica*, L., is the same with *Anona muricata*: — another is very nearly related to *Piper Æthiopicum* of the shops, the *Unona Æthiopica*, and perhaps also *Unona aromatica* of Dunal: constituting, with some other described species, a distinct genus not yet observed in Asia.

Malpighiaceæ. Three species: one is *Banisteria leona* of Cavanilles, who added the fruit of a different plant to his figure. Here the blunder, long since detected by Dryander, of that Spanish botanist, is mentioned, who made up his *Flabellaria* by joining the pinnated leaf of a *Pterocarpus* to the fructification of an *Hiræa* which has opposite and simple leaves. The two other species form a genus with alternate leaves, not seen before in the order.

Hippocrateæ. Mr. Brown formerly proposed to join these plants with his *Celastrinæ*, and says that 'they still appear to him to have a considerable degree of affinity.' On the contrary,

contrary, we not only think that Jussieu was right in distinguishing them as an order, but have always placed them even in a different class, that of *Cardiospermeæ*, between the orders of *Tricapterideæ* and *Acereæ*.

Sapindaceæ. Four species, two of which are new *Sapindi*; the third is probably *Cardiospermum grandiflorum*; and the fourth so like *Paullinia pinnata*, as hardly to be distinguished. Here our great carpologist does not fail to proclaim Jussieu's ignorance of the inconstancy of direction in the ovulum and embryo of this order, and states that he has referred plants to *Melicocca*, differing in that point. It does not follow, however, that Jussieu has done wrong in this instance, since an analogous anomaly occurs in *Enonymus*.

Tiliaceæ. Nine species, three of which are new genera; the first approaching to *Sparmannia* in many respects, but to *Corchorus* in fruit; the second also like *Corchorus* in fruit, but with different anthers, and a pedicellated ovarium; the third remarkable for having a three-lobed calyx, five petals, and five monospermous capsules connected only at their base.

Malvaceæ. Eighteen species; about one thirty-fourth part of the *Phænogamous* plants from Congo, mostly *Sidæ*, or *Hibisci*. *Urena Americana*, and *Malachra radiata* are among them; and a *Bombax*, probably *pentandrum*. The author observes that the valvular æstivation of the calyx distinguishes this class from *Tiliaceæ*: he may be right, but we doubt.

Leguminosæ. This class was always divided by Dryander, as well as Mr. Brown, into the three following orders. First, *Mimoseæ*, of which eight species are from Congo, seven belonging to *Acacia* as established by Willdenow, and the eighth to *Mimosa*. Secondly, *Casalpineæ*, of which nineteen species are in the herbarium; one is the poisonous *Red Water-tree*, *Erythrophleum* of Afzelius; another, the *Ordeal* plant of Congo, called *Cassa* by the natives; a third is *Guilandina Bonduc*; and a fourth, *Cassia occidentalis*. Thirdly, *Papilionaceæ*, among which is a new decandrous genus, to which *Poddyria bracteata* of Roxburgh belongs. Most of these leguminous plants are related to those of Hindostan more nearly than to those of America.

Terebintaceæ. Jussieu, in his *Genera Plantarum*, left this class of vegetables nearly as it was originally proposed by his illustrious uncle, but has since separated one of the orders which it contains, by the name of Cassuviæ; the propriety of doing which was long ago pointed out by Dryander. We have only a single species from Congo, and that is a *Rhus* with simple verticillated leaves, approaching in habit to some others discovered by Masson and Burchell at the Cape of Good Hope.

Hope. In *Amyrideæ*, another order of the class, two species have been collected; one is probably a *Sorindeia*; the other, called *Safu* by the natives, who plant it round their villages for the sake of its fruit, may be related to *Bursera* or *Pompartia*. *Connaraceæ* is a third order, now first established by Mr. Brown, who observes that 'the most important distinguishing characters of Connaraceæ consist in the insertion of the two collateral ovula of each of its pistilla being near the base; while the radicle of the embryo is situated at the upper or opposite extremity of the seed, which is always solitary.' The affinity of *Oxalis* to *Averrhoa*, first noticed by Batsch, is here mentioned.

Chrysobalaneæ. Another order, judiciously separated by Mr. Brown from *Amygdaleæ*. Only two species are in the Congo herbarium, one probably *Chrysobalanus Icaco*, and the other a *Parinarium*. We regard all these plants as decidedly perigynous, though the pedicellus of the ovarium is the only part cohering with the calyx. The author says; 'I am not acquainted with any instance among Dicotyledonous plants of cohesion between a simple ovarium, which I consider that of Chrysobalanus to be, and the tube of the calyx:' but, in the order of *Dianthæ*, if he allows their ovarium to be simple, we have seen several instances of this; and, though the insertion of their filaments has hitherto been described as hypogynous, many of them are truly perigynous even in Jussieu's sense, adhering far more to what he calls a calyx, though we regard it as a part of the receptacle, than to the *stipes* of the ovarium.

Melastomaceæ. Four species: the first a *Tristemma*; the second probably *Melastoma decumbens*; the third and fourth *Rhexias*, as that genus is characterized by Ventenat, not by Linné. The author's remarks on their envelopes are very diffuse; and ten ribs, by which the pericarpium of a species now in the stove of the Comtesse de Vandes is attached to the calyx, leaving so many open cells to contain each anther during æstivation, are described: but he does not communicate a good idea of this economy to a stranger; calling these cells first '*tubular interstices*'! and afterward '*sheaths*'! Neither can he refrain from giving two slaps to Bonpland, from whom we received, conjointly with Mr. Brown, much information relative to this order; first for overlooking the singular character just mentioned, and a second for referring all the plants in his monographs on *Melastoma* and *Rhexia* erroneously to those genera.

Rhizophoreæ. Two species; a new *Rhizophora*; and a new *Legnotis*, which the author thinks is allied to *Carallia*.

Homaliæ. An order here first proposed. We cannot, however, agree with Mr. Brown in referring *Ryania* to *Passifloreæ*; and we insert the latter order, as well as *Homaleæ*, in the great class of *Tiliaceæ*, between *Samydeæ* and *Sloaneæ*. In our herbariolum, we have a genus belonging to *Passifloreæ* from the Island of Madagascar, communicated by Dr. Thompson; with pinnated leaves, and eight stamina, four opposite to the outer, and four to the inner divisions of the envelope, which we would call *Octerium*.

Violeæ. No *Englishman*, with whom we have consulted, has been able to perceive the affinity supposed by some *French* botanists to exist between *Violeæ* and *Passifloreæ*. The former are truly polypetalous, and in our series follow *Fumareæ*, *Chelidoneæ*, *Berberideæ*, and *Cisseæ*, at a great distance from *Passifloreæ*. Mr. Brown joins *Passalia*, Sol., *Ceranthera*, Beauv., *Physiphora*, Sol., *Canohoria*, J., *Rinorea*, J., *Riana*, J., *Passura*, J., *Piparea*, J., *Pentaloba*, Lour., and perhaps *Lauradia*, Vand., all to *Alsodeia* of Petit Thouars, regarding them as a section of *Violeæ*; and he thinks that *Hymenanthera*, a genus from New Holland, which is still unpublished, may connect *Violeæ* and *Polygaleæ*. Botanists are not yet agreed about the affinity of the latter: but, as some of these plants are indisputably perigynous, they can hardly join *Violeæ*. We learn that De Candolle thinks they may possibly come near *Drosereæ*. We formerly placed them with Linné before *Leguminosæ*, but now regard them and *Tetratheceæ* as a distinct class between *Cardiospermeæ* and *Rhamneæ*, which we should propose to call *Salomoneæ*; and they will immediately follow *Aitonia*, which forms a section of the order *Melianthеæ*.

Chailleteæ. This genus was described by De Candolle in the seventeenth volume of *Annales du Muséum* from a Guiana plant, previously named *Patrisia* by Von Rohr, and *Mestotes* by Solander. Both *Leucosia* and *Dichapetalum* of Petit Thouars appear to Mr. Brown to be congeners of this, and another species is in the Congo herbarium. He thinks that these, with an unpublished genus from Hindostan, and *Tapura* of Aublet, form an order to which *Aquilaria* and *Gyrinops* are allied. We, however, regard these plants as two separate orders, inserting them in the class of *Rhamneæ*; and the affinity of *Aquilaria* to *Thymeleæ* we cannot see, though its bark is tough, and contains silky fibres.

Euphorbiaceæ. Twenty species; among which are a new *Alchornea*, a plant differing from *Ægopricon* in having capsular fruit; two new *Bridelias*; and that genus mentioned in Captain Flinders's voyage as explaining the structure of *Euphorbia*, and which, like *Iatropha elastica*, produces a sort of *Caoutchouc*.

Com-

Compositæ. Twenty-four species, the greater part referable to *Heliantheæ* and *Vernoniaceæ* of Cassini: most of them, however, are unpublished species, and among them are five new genera. A long and rather tiresome detail relative to their proportion in numbers to other orders is added. Mr. B. seems to shew a feeling like jealousy of that illustrious botanist even here: for, though he allows the orders proposed by him 'to be the most natural,' it is added that 'they have not as yet been satisfactorily defined.'

Rubiaceæ. Forty-three species, more than half belonging to *Gardenia*, *Pyschotria*, *Morinda*, *Hedyotis*, and *Spermacoce*. Of the rest, one is a new genus allied to *Gardenia*; another intermediate between *Rondeletia* and *Danais*; the third, which is probably *Sarcocephalus* of Afzelius, or country-*Fig* of Sierra Leone, has flowers of *Nauclea*, but pericarpia confluent into one common fruit; a fourth is a new *Neurocarpæa*; and the fifth genus is intermediate between *Rubiaceæ* and *Apocineæ*. The order of *Loganiæ* formerly proposed by the author, and here mentioned, does not appear to us a natural combination; we examined flowers of *Usteria* when Afzelius was here, and, from the figures and description then made, it appears that the tube of its corolla has a prominent margin, exactly like that of *Rondeletia*.

Apocineæ. Only six species of this order were brought from Congo. The first, an unpublished genus, probably the *Cream-Fruit* of Afzelius, and unquestionably very remarkable for affording a wholesome saccharine fluid in an order so generally deleterious.

Asclepiadeæ. Very few species, one of them a *Periploca*, the other an *Oxystelma*.

Acanthaceæ. Sixteen species; among which are a *Nelsonia*, an *Hypoestes*, an *Ætheilema* (according to the author possibly not different from *Phaylopsis*), a new *Blepharis*, and a genus of which Mr. B. spoke in his Prodromus as consisting of *Ruellia balsamea* and *uliginosa*. This last, in our MS. descriptions, we long ago called *Oryzetes*, inserting it in the order of *Nelsoneæ*, after *Veroniceæ*. *Nelsoneæ* differ from all the other orders of the class *Acantheæ*, except *Thunbergeæ*, in having no hooked process to the funiculus of their seeds; and we divide them thus:

Sect. 1. *Stamina* 2.
Nelsonia, Dryand.

Sect. 2. *Stamina* 4.
Elytraria, Rich.
Themon, Salisb. *Ruellia spinescens*, &c.
Cerea, Salisb. *Ruellia ovata*, &c.

Aden-

Adenosma, R. Br.
Oryzetes, Salisb. *Ruellia uliginosa*, &c.

These, in a natural series, we think, may be followed by the true *Justiceæ*, an order to which *Dicliptera*, J. belongs; then by *Adhatodeæ*, *Barrelieæ*; and lastly, *Thunbergeæ*; introducing the class of *Bignoneæ*, where we would insert *Martyneæ*, *Josephineæ*, *Crescenteæ*, *Catalpeæ*, and *Sesameæ*, succeeded by the extensive class of *Melampyreæ*, which includes most of the didynamous angiospermous genera in the sexual system.

Convolvulaceæ. Twenty-two species, belonging to *Ipomæa* and *Convolvulus*.

Hydroleæ. An order proposed by Mr. Brown: it contains only *Nama* and *Hydrolea*; of which latter genus one species is from Congo; and they approach nearer to *Polemoneæ* than to *Convolvuleæ*.

Scrophularinæ. Ten species, of which two form new genera.

Labiatæ. Seven species, three belonging to *Ocymum*, three to *Hyptis*, and one to *Hoslundia*.

Verbenaceæ. We cannot think, as the author does, that these plants form one natural class with *Labiatæ*. The Congo herbarium contains seven species, three of *Clerodendron*, two of *Vitex*, one of *Cymburus*, and one with leaves in threes, smelling like those of *Aloysia citriodora*, which he refers to *Lippia*; observing that it confirms the union suggested by Richard of *Zapania* and *Lippia*: but on this point, notwithstanding two such high authorities, we most humbly doubt.

Olacinæ. One species; differing from all the rest, in its calyx not being enlarged after fecundation. In a long disquisition, the author mentions that *Exocarpus* has *ovarium superum*: but we did not find it completely so, in any of the species which we dissected with Dryander, soon after Labillardière's voyage was published; on the contrary, it was about one-fourth part *inferum*, and still more so in a species formerly joined to *Loranthus* in the Banksian herbarium.

Urticeæ. Considering these as a class rather than an order, there are seven species of *Ficus*, and a genus called *Musanga* by the natives, intermediate between *Coussapoa* and *Cecropia*. For some valuable carpological facts relative to *Artocarpeæ*, (in which order we would insert *Platanus*,) *Urticeæ*, *Chenopodeæ*, *Polygoneæ*, and *Celtideæ*, we refer our readers to the work itself; they have the merit of being not only short, but clearly expressed.

Phytolaceæ. An order here first proposed, containing *Phytolacca*, *Rivina*, *Microtea*, and *Petiveria*. Their disagreement with *Atriplices* was long ago noticed by Dryander, but we cannot join *Petiveria* and *Seguieria* to them.

Palmæ.

Palmæ. The herbarium contains no satisfactory specimens of any Palms except *Elæis Guineensis*, the fruit of which is called *Maba* by the natives. The observations here are very important, and we believe that no living botanist knows *Palmæ* half so well as Mr. Brown.

Cyperaceæ. Thirty-two species, and among them one scarcely different from the *Papyrus* of *Egypt*.

Gramineæ. Forty-five species, more than half *Paniceæ*, the rest *Poaceæ*.

Filices. Twenty-two species, the far greater part new, but referable to *Nephrodium*, *Asplenium*, *Pteris*, *Polypodium*, *Adiantum*, and *Acrostichum*; respecting which a variety of observations fill three pages. To these the author adds a few others on orders *not* in the Congo herbarium. We think with the old proverb "*Odor bonus e re qualibet*," and these relate to *Cycadeæ*, *Piperaceæ*, *Begoniaceæ*, (which he now agrees with us ought to be divided,) *Laurinæ*, *Passifloreæ*, *Myrsineæ*, *Magnoliaceæ*, *Cedreleæ*, *Guttiferæ*, *Meliaceæ*, and *Hesperideæ*.

3dly, The vegetation near the river Congo is compared with that of other equinoctial countries: but we do not learn much more than that the plants mentioned are very general along that coast. Relative to the esculent plants, the knowlege of which is derived from the journals and verbal communications of Mr. David Lockhart, the gardener, it is probable that most of them have been introduced from other parts; the *Maize*, *Manioc*, *Pine-apple*, *Papaw*, *Capsicum*, and *Tobacco*, from *America*; while the *Banana*, *Lime*, *Orange*, *Tamarind*, and *Sugar-Cane*, may be considered as of *Asiatic* origin.

A long disquisition ensues, on the geographical distribution of genera, and considering how far it may lead to the determination of the native country of certain plants in doubtful cases. Here the author brings sufficient evidence that the *Akee* or *Blighia Sapida* is indigenous in Ashantee. He adds four lists: 1st, Of Plants common to equinoctial Africa, America, and Asia. 2dly, Of Plants commom to equinoctial Africa, and America, but not found in Hindostan. 3dly, Of Plants common to equinoctial Africa and Hindostan, but not found in America. 4thly, Of Plants which have not been satisfactorily ascertained. After these, we have other remarks on many plants before mentioned; and Mr. Brown concludes with stating that, of 620 species in Professor Smith's herbarium, 30 are so imperfect as not to be referable to their proper genera; 250 are absolutely new; 70 are common to other intra-tropical regions; and 32 form unpublished *genera*, but they have no natural order absolutely new among them.

ART. IX. *An Essay on Agriculture*; containing an Introduction, in which the Science of Agriculture is pointed out, by a careful Attention to the Works of Nature; also, the Means of rendering Barren Soils luxuriantly Productive, at a very Moderate Expense, and of Beneficially employing the Industrious and Unoccupied Poor. To which is added, a Memoir drawn up, at the express Desire of His Imperial Highness the Archduke John of Austria, on the Nature and Nutritive Qualities of Fiorin Grass, with Practical Remarks on its abundant Properties, and the best Mode of cultivating that extraordinary Vegetable. By William Richardson, D.D. 8vo. pp. 173. Boards. Whitmore and Fenn. 1818.

EXPERIMENT is the connecting link between Art and Science, Theory and Practice: but how far this *tripartite* division of Agriculture could be systematically adopted, it is not very easy to ascertain. The mere experimentalist, "without prejudices or even opinions of his own," is at present an imaginary personage, and probably will so remain: yet, if we consider that the practice of the theoretical farmer, and the theory of the practical, are equally and almost proverbially good for nothing, it seems as if this intermediate character, exhibiting to the latter the result of speculations which the former has suggested, might be introduced with advantage to both. His experiments, conducted on an unexpensive scale, would in their partial success inspire the reluctant confidence of the one, and in their partial failure repress the visionary and costly projects of the other. Dr. Richardson complains that the practical agriculturist has taken on himself the three characters; treating the theorist with contempt, discouraging improvements, and nipping in the bud those discoveries which might have proved useful. That a considerable degree of caution, a large discount, is allowable in adopting the schemes of the projector, will not be denied: much is at stake, and the failure might sometimes be fatal: but really that reproach appears to us unmerited, — on English farmers at least, — which attributes to them an attempt to impede the discoveries of ingenious men by resisting the improvements which they suggest. Let any man go to the agricultural meetings of the Duke of Bedford, Lord Somerville, Mr. Coke, or those on a smaller scale of other gentlemen, and he will not observe any marks of the discouragement of agriculture *as a science:* but he will see munificent premiums bestowed for every useful discovery, and the most flattering attention paid by practical farmers to every plausible hint. Moreover, the comparative state of agriculture, now and five-and-twenty or thirty years ago, will repel the charge of indifference

forbearance on the part of practical farmers to the improvements proposed by scientific men. If we look at the infinite variety of machinery introduced; at the regular dispersion of seed and of manure at one and the same time by the drill; at the threshing-machine; at the irrigation of meadows; and now, very recently, at the inoculation for pastures; — if we look indeed at the general neatness of husbandry in all its branches, and the emulation of practical farmers to surpass each other, — we can scarcely have so low an opinion of them as Dr. Richardson has expressed; or say with him that, through their supercilious obstinacy, agriculture, as a science, is at a stand: that 'the present possessor of the field, perfectly satisfied with his own attainments, and in high admiration of his own practices, often very good, does not admit improvement to be necessary, and indignantly rejects any innovation.'

Whether any of the agricultural societies which now exist in every part of the United Kingdom, and to which the high cultivation of the country is doubtless in some measure attributable, could be enabled to extend their beneficial influence by the appropriation in each county of a few acres as experimental farms, is a question intitled to consideration. Dr. Richardson advises the establishment of these schools of agriculture, under the management of committees: whose reports would contain a mass of information very different, he thinks, from such as is now found in the numerous volumes of agricultural book-makers. It might be so; and, if a body of individuals would unite for so laudable a purpose, we can perceive no possible objection: they would in course divide themselves into different departments, and assign to themselves separate subjects of investigation.

In the second part of this Essay, Dr. R. treats of the means of rendering barren soils productive; and it is to these untouched domains of nature, mountains and naked sands, and moors and mosses, that he especially calls our attention. It is not very difficult to anticipate the means recommended: 'cover the hills, cover the valleys, cover the plains, with Fiorin.' As Dr. R. has very frequently expatiated on the excellent qualities of this grass, — and, among others, of its adaptation to every climate, soil, circumstance, and situation, from the summit of the highest mountain to the meadow and the quagmire, — and as we have noticed his various publications on the subject, (see Vols. lxii. lxxiii. lxxviii. and lxxx.) — we shall be excused from going into a minute detail on the present occasion. The main requisites

are drainage, manure, and protection; and, as the supply of each of these will furnish abundant labour for the industrious and unoccupied poor, the expence must be a subordinate consideration, or, rather than an objection to the measure, should be deemed a recommendation of it.

The principal materials for improvement are lime and ashes: the former may not always be procurable in sufficient abundance, but the peat which is dug in forming drains will amply supply the latter; and a mountain is an excellent situation for burning them, because combustion is easily excited and kept alive. With a compost of parent-earth, ashes, and lime, 'I engage,' says Dr. Richardson, in that sanguine tone to which he accustoms himself, 'I *engage* to raise from Sutherland, by the skirts of Ben Nevis and Ben Lomond, Skiddaw, and Snowdon, and finally, far up on Dartmoor, crops of hay of superior quality and double the quantity of what is now raised on the best meadows in Middlesex, with the aid of London dung.' Again; 'should I be seconded as I wish, every mountain grazing-farm from Caithness to Dumbarton would be enabled to sustain through the winter the whole stock that had grazed upon it in summer.' The luxuriance of the fiorin does indeed surpass — almost all belief: a ton and a half would be considered as a fair average crop of hay on an English acre: but Mr. Watt obtained from the Farming Society in Ireland a premium of 50l. for his produce from an English acre of fiorin, made in good condition and weighed dry in March, amounting to six tons, sixteen hundred, three quarters, and fourteen pounds. — Dr. R. had the second prize adjudged to him for having produced on an English acre five tons, nineteen hundred weight, two quarters, and seventeen pounds. Yet even this enormous produce sinks into nothing before the following statement:

'In February, 1815, I requested my noble friends the Earls of Caledon and Gosford to inspect a poor coarse piece of ground never broken up, promising their Lordships, that if they would be so good as to call again late in October, they should see the same ground (48 English perches) covered with a crop of hay of superior quality, and double the quantity of any other crop grown in Ireland that season; without breaking the surface, sowing or planting fiorin, or performing any other operation than surface-draining, weeding, and top-dressing.

'My two noble friends, and many other persons of respectability, attended in February, 1815; and, fully satisfied of the wretchedness of the 48 perches I laid off before them, were much amused at my promise of producing a double crop on that same portion within the year.

'The

'The two Earls attended again in November, each accompanied by friends; and I observed them impressing on these strangers, the poor state in which they had viewed this ground in the preceding February, but now covered by a crop (different parts of which were mowed before them,) that their Lordships authorized me to say, seemed treble the amount of those they were used to see cut. The crop of 1816 yielded above *thirty tons* green sward to the English acre, and now (June, 1817,) the third crop seems to promise better than either of the preceding.'

In his memoir on the *Agrostis Stolonifera*, drawn up for the Archduke of Austria, Dr. Richardson, with the candid spirit of a philosopher, acknowleges that some of the applications of this grass, concerning which he was once very sanguine, and had recommended in the strongest manner, he has since been obliged to abandon: but other unexpected uses and applications have compensated for them. He is now willing to concede that the grand, indeed the *sole*, use of fiorin is to furnish *dry* hay for winter-cattle: though it will be recollected that, from some experiments on a small scale, he had eulogized it as affording a steady supply of valuable winter *green* food. He seems now to suspect that the latter growth of the stolones (that is, the end of the string,) is inferior in quality to the part nearer the root; and that, although the quantity of the crop is increased by this unseasonable growth, no additional saccharum is formed, but, on the contrary, that which had already been produced in the earlier part of the season is now dissipated. Fiorin-hay, however, may still be mown till the second week in October, without any deterioration of its quality. — On the principle of this loss of saccharum, Dr. R. has now discontinued the practice of suffering fiorin to remain uncut till the spring of the following year; and experience has likewise induced him totally to give up the irrigation of fiorin-meadows.

Peat-moss is the most favourite soil for Fiorin: but, unfortunately, both the parent and the progeny are under the "ban of the empire" of Agriculture: each being denounced and execrated by most writers, the former on account of its sterility as to all valuable products, and the latter for its mischievous luxuriance. In the controversy between Dr. Richardson and some writers in the Transactions of the Highland Society on this subject, we are not qualified to assume the office of arbiters. When these gentlemen condemn so large an area as the peats of Scotland occupy, as being utterly incapable of producing any valuable crop, and condemn likewise the fiorin itself which flourishes on that soil; while the Doctor extols this grass for qualities which excel those of all other

grasses; we are naturally disposed to take the side of him who inspires us with hope, and who confidently assures us that he can reclaim from sterility this vast reprobated surface. One of the writers says; "The man who discovers the latent causes of the sterility of all moss in general, and of each species in particular, will deserve well of his country, perhaps of all Europe:" to which Dr. Richardson replies:

'I am curious to know what claims this gentleman will pronounce me to have on my own country and upon all Europe, when I shall make it appear, not only that this sterility has no existence, but that I can raise on peat soil, in its natural state, and in the very area condemned by the Highland Society, as beyond the bounds of national industry, crops of hay, more valuable than any now raised in the county of Middlesex, with the aid of London dung.

'To shew that I can actually do so, has been long a favourite object with me; and all I ask is a fair opportunity to make the trial in the face of the world; and I hope the vicinity of the field of action to our metropolis (the peaty mountains just above it) may tempt the proprietors of the soil, perhaps our Viceroy himself, to make experiments, the result of which, if favourable, would be of such incalculable national importance.

'My ignorance of the soil through the Austrian dominions, precludes me from knowing if my Imperial pupils be interested in the improvement of peaty soil; but their brother the Emperor's territories abound with mountains, and these afford the finest field for raising fiorin in the greatest abundance, whether by cultivation, or the more recent mode to which I am coming, of rousing the efforts of spontaneous nature, to clothe these alpine surfaces with either luxuriant meadow, or grateful pasture; and their Highnesses may live to see the Julian Alps, and the Carpathian Mountains, affording as abundant sustenance to their cattle, winter and summer, as is yielded by their richest low countries.'

We have many untouched wastes in England, the heights in Cumberland to the north, and the forest of Dartmoor in the south, and many fens in Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire, where, under proper management, the fiorin might prosper luxuriantly; and much pleasure would it afford us to hear that the patriotic efforts of Dr. Richardson, instead of being damped and derided, — often times by those who are very incompetent to appreciate the ground-work of his expectations, — were encouraged and assisted by those individuals or societies whose more immediate interest it may be, and who have the power, to give them an effective impulse.

ART.

ART. X. *Letters from the North Highlands*, during the Summer 1816. By Elizabeth Isabella Spence. 8vo. pp. 364. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

WE have on former occasions taken notice of certain performances by this lady; and a perusal of the present production has not led us to alter the opinion which we before expressed of her literary qualifications. The same defects, indeed, accompanied by the same slender degree of merit, which have hitherto characterized her publications, constitute the features of the volume now before us; and Miss Spence seems to imagine, with too many authors of the day, that to indite with all the velocity of a ready writer's pen, and to have her book pushed into the hands of the public with the least possible interval between its first conception and its birth, are very clever achievements. As to a total neglect of previous preparation, of selection or correctness in the thoughts, of elegance or accuracy in the expression, these matters signify not, provided that the meaning, be it what it may, is on the whole intelligible; all is then very well; the task has been performed with perfect facility, the most laudable dispatch has been used by the press, and the peerless genius sits down amid feelings of the happiest self-complacency to await the meed of profit and panegyric which is about to result from so hopeful an enterprise.

In this department of travelling, in particular, Miss Spence, like so many other *vagabondizing* * journalists, seems to have deemed it altogether unnecessary to spend much thought on the preparatory qualifications of an intelligent tourist. These publishing pilgrims regard all requisites of a literary kind as superfluous except such as may be procured at the stationer's shop; and, if a sufficient supply of clean note-books be put up with a correspondent portion of clean linen, the journey is undertaken under the happiest auspices, and cannot fail to be very successfully accomplished. An enlarged and liberal course of preliminary study on the nature and history of governments, or of ecclesiastical institutions, or of arts, commerce, and manners, as they have appeared in different countries and ages, is out of the question; — habits of discriminating observation are never contemplated; — and even a perusal of former narratives relating to the very country about to be explored is perfectly unnecessary, — unless as an ample auxiliary resource on all needful and convenient occasions. Hence no traveller, in these days, makes any scruple to note down

* See the anecdote of the French gentleman drinking the health of the author of "the Rambler."

all that he sees, and to print all that he writes: he needs but open his eyes, and abundance of information enters. Does he visit Russia or Holland? he finds that there are prodigious bells at Moscow, and a not less prodigious organ at Haarlem. At Paris, he discovers that the architecture of the Louvre is wonderfully rich and magnificent; and among the Highlands of Scotland he descries lakes and vallies, and the men *breeched* in short *petticoats*. Thus a fact which was once not improper to be told, when told for the first time, is repeated by every successive traveller, until the public is stunned and stupified with tours and journals; which are only an echo of one another, varying merely in the quantity of small-talk superinduced by the traveller himself, or in the degree of embellishment with which the printer or the engraver has been directed to perform his part.

Applying these remarks, we must confess that we find really nothing of any importance in the Letters before us, which has not been already narrated in every book of travels in Scotland; and even of facts of the less frivolous though trite description, the proportion is very scanty, there being a copious menstruum of the small-talk to which we have just alluded. We are sorry, moreover, to be obliged farther to state that, notwithstanding our former admonitions relative to grammar, the ordinary rules of this indispensable accomplishment of *printed* literature suffer a constant and most heedless violation; of which delinquency we shall presently give one or two curious specimens.

Amid these weighty objections, however, we must not omit to observe that a certain cheerfulness and alacrity are diffused throughout this lady's pages, which with indulgent readers will go far in atoning for her offences. She always writes in extremely good humour, and on occasion even with enthusiasm; although, unfortunately, this latter sentiment seldom awakens any new idea in her own mind, or impresses very deeply that of her reader.

Her route lay by Coldstream and Flodden to Dalkeith and Edinburgh; where having stayed some time, she continued northward by Queensferry, Perth, Aberdeen, and Elgin, as far as Inverness, which seems to have been the extreme point of her journey in that direction. Then turning westward, she proceeded to Fort Augustus on Loch Ness; whence returning to Inverness, she directed her course southward, by what is called *the Highland Road*, to Blair-Athol, Dunkeld, Stirling, and Glasgow. From this latter place, she made a shorter excursion over a part of very nearly the same ground; having returned to the neighbourhood of Perth, and journeyed

thence

thence along the banks of the Tay to Dundee, and then to Aberbroath and Montrose; whence she appears to have gone back by the direct route to Edinburgh.

Though the fine ruins at Elgin have been repeatedly described by other travellers, we quote the following passage as not the most unfavourable specimen of the fair author's talent for this sort of writing: but our readers will remark in it some instances of that intrepid disregard of grammatical observances, to which we have before referred.

'From a high point of ground, called New Hill, on the Lossie Mouth road, the view of Elgin, resting in the vale, with the towers of the cathedral caught in the view, the double row of painted windows belonging to the grand choir, terminated at their base by a superb arched one, produce an effect singularly magnificent, and rendered eminently beautiful, when contrasted with scenery so soft and luxuriant. This vale is justly called the garden of Scotland. The gentle Lossie, still yet pellucid, glides through the pretty green meadows enamelled with a variety of wild flowers.

'Proceeding from the town to the ruins, a circular window forms a fine vista, at the termination of the college, as seen from the cross. The grand arched gateway, separated by the noble west towers, in which are five niches, supposed formerly to contain figures; also in an oval medallion, one of the Virgin. The noble arch of exquisite tracery work, was filled with coloured glass; the ornamental part is still most beautiful. On proceeding forward, the grand choir becomes an object of surprising grandeur. The light elegant stone-work is of the florid Gothic, consisting of the greatest variety of ornament; and the fluted columns, instead of standing in even uniformity, gracefully recedes. From the centre of this mass of ruin, magnificent even in decay, was pointed out to me where the grand tower formerly stood, to the height of 199 feet. I next entered the choir [which was] in a more perfect state than the other parts of the cathedral. A rich stone gallery terminates the top, beautifully carved. Beneath, are five windows to the east, with two on each side to light the grand altar. One grand stall remains, where the bishop sat during the performance of religious ceremonies, with five others of the dignified clergy.

'The chapter-house, with a clustered pillar in the centre, and bearing the bishop's arms, is a fine remnant of antiquity. That this majestic ruin may not further fall into decay, it is now undergoing a proper repair, which is done in so judicious a manner, at the liberal expense of Lord Fife, it will sustain the same appearance of venerable decay.

'Bishop Andrew Murroff is said to have laid the foundation-stone of this cathedral, built in the form of a Jerusalem cross, and according to Mr. Forsyth's account, had five towers, two of which were on the corners of the *west*-end, one in the middle, and two on the *west*-end, between which, was the grand entrance. The gateway, an arch terminating in an angle, is 24 feet broad at the base,

base, and 24 feet high. There were aisles on each side of the church, eastward from the transept, which were 18 feet broad, outside the walls. Besides the large window in the aisles, there was a range of windows above the aisles, each six feet in height. In the west gable, above the gate, there was a window 27 feet high, and 19 wide at the base. In the east gable there was a range of five windows, each ten by two feet; above, four more, each seven feet high; and over all, near the centre, a circular window, near 10 feet in diameter. The chapter-house is an octagon, 34 feet high, 27 in breadth. The vaulted roof is supported by a clustered pillar, nine feet in circumference. From this pillar, ribs stretch along the roof, to each angle of the octagon; each of seven sides, has a window; the eighth side joins the choir. * * * * *

'There is something very mournful, my dear friend, in contemplating the fallen grandeur of these noble remnants of ancient architecture, which fancy again peoples with the dignified personages who filled these splendid sanctuaries; and a sentiment bordering on regret mingles with a view of such places, when it is considered, that as the age becomes more enlightened and refined, the taste partakes rather of the airy and light, in the style of architecture, than the solemn and sublime, which on being regarded, naturally elevates the mind to a feeling above the daily insignificance of worldly objects.' (P. 92, &c.)

We will give another favourable extract, descriptive of the funeral of a Highland chieftain; a ceremony with which the popular sources of information, already before the public, have probably made some of our readers acquainted.

'Proceeding towards Drumnadrochat,' (the traveller had just left Fort Augustus on her return to Inverness,) 'my attention was arrested on my arrival by a very impressive event, the funeral of a Highland chieftain, Mr. Grant, of Red Castle, which afforded me both a novel and interesting view of these manners, and these affections which are fast receding before the luxury and selfishness of modern times. The remains of primitive customs and primitive attachment, are only to be found in these remote corners. Indeed, in this case, the regret for the deceased was deep and universal in the surrounding country, as well as amongst his own clan. These, with his tenants, were numerous (probably very sincere ones) at the funeral. He died in the vigour of life, much beloved for many amiable qualities, and lamented on the score of those useful virtues that are so influential in a country where example is still more powerful than laws.

'On drawing near the inn, to which the procession was approaching, a singular and picturesque group presented itself. Great numbers of the common people, clad in bright and shewy tartan, their usual dress of ceremony, who were sitting on the ground, others walking about, and in some instances extended on the grass asleep, fatigued, no doubt, with coming from a very great distance to testify their respect for the departed. The women, who were nearly as numerous as the men, seemed to keep apart by

themselves, and were seated at a distance under the trees, not ungracefully habited in the old Scotish costume, the most distinguished part of which was the plaid, so adjusted, as to have exactly the appearance, when drawn over the head, of the drapery of the vestal virgins, such as we see on medals and ancient statues. Ladies wore them in silk of a tartan pattern, lined with pink in front, and sometimes brought forward, to veil the face from the weather; sometimes partially folded back; and among the lower class, who alone retain the fashion, it is now worn over the shoulders on common occasions; but brought forward over the face in church, to denote a deep and pious attention to the duties of the place, or, as in the present instance, in testimony of mourning.

'After contemplating this specimen of rustic manners, the more solemn and signalized part of the funeral array drew near, in which Mr. Grant's six sons (a most affecting and melancholy sight) appeared; the eldest as chief mourner. The hearse was drawn by four horses, and followed by a long string of carriages, containing gentlemen, who had come above fifty miles to do honour to the memory of their deceased friend. The procession drew up to the inn, when the coffin was taken out of the hearse, and placed on a bier, which was surrounded by all the relations and friends; the eldest Mr. Grant supporting the head of the bier, which is carried by hand. The multitude which followed exceeded fourteen hundred persons.

'Round the family-tomb were seated a number of old women, prepared to say the *coronach*, a lamentation used at Highland funerals. * * * * *

'There cannot, perhaps, be a stronger proof of the deep impression the natives of this country have of these funeral honours, than the importance attached to them by the godless and heartless Lord Lovat, who though he merely lived to gratify his ambition and avarice, and seemed to love no one on earth, and fear nought beyond it, had still the most anxious desire to be brought down to be buried in his own country, and earnestly solicited that favour of the King and his ministers. He gave for a reason, that he was desirous to have the coronach of the old women, in his own country, over his grave.' (P. 204, &c.)

We are really unwilling to lessen the impression which these specimens are possibly calculated to make in favour of this performance: but we must fulfil our promise to specify one or two curious instances of verbal inaccuracy, that the fair author may at length take warning, and correct at least this one very corrigible offence. Speaking of the Scotish Queen Mary, and the island of Loch-leven in which she was confined, Miss Spence is pleased to observe: 'The subject of her personal history, which has been so much canvassed, was in some degree lately revived, by the discovery of the keys of the castle, *which was lately dragged up in a fisherman's net.*' (P. 41.) If this, i. e. *the castle*, was a tolerable draught

draught for the fisherman's net, it is matched by the cargo which, probably about the same time, was intended to be sent to Holland: no wonder that the vessel sank! 'The cathedral' (of Elgin) 'was sacrilegiously stripped of the lead, together with *that* of the cathedral in Old Aberdeen, *and shipped for Holland*, where it was to be sold, but the vessel sunk within a mile of the harbour of Aberdeen from whence she sailed.' (P. 95.) The fate of the unfortunate Provost Duff of Inverness is still more moving. One day, when crossing a certain wooden bridge of the town *in his civic chair*, it suddenly gave way, (we know not whether the bridge or the chair,) and the astonished and degraded magistrate received a ducking. 'When Provost Duff filled the civic chair in passing over the wooden bridge thrown across the Ness, it suddenly gave way, and he was precipitated into the river on one of the planks, which floated him down to Cromwell's Fort, a distance of half a mile.' (P. 123.) Speaking of a picture of Adam and Eve, the writer says: 'Eve is regarded by Adam with a countenance of sorrowful anxiety and apprehension. *Her's portray* a tender and timid apprehension.' (P. 74.) '*Being a Sunday in the neighbourhood of Glasgow*,' Miss Spence went to the church of Dr. Chalmers, and the result is thus stated:—'The Doctor gratified me exceedingly, by hearing eloquence of a very superior order.' (P. 282.) According to the *illegitimate construction* of this sentence, its *legitimate meaning* is that Miss S. was very eloquent in the Doctor's hearing, and that she was exceedingly gratified by his listening to her.—Really, to use a common phrase, it is *too bad* to see books published that are written in this mantua-maker's, lady's maid's, 'prentice-girl's kind of style. Even in one of the ordinary novels of the day, it is sufficiently disgusting, though almost tolerable from prescription: but, when it ascends a single step higher, it should be unrelentingly kicked down into the kitchen.

ART. XI. *Practical Observations in Surgery and Morbid Anatomy*, illustrated by Cases, with Dissections and Engravings. By John Howship, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London, &c. 8vo. pp. 500. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co.

A CONSIDERABLE assemblage of cases is here offered to us, consisting partly of such as fell under the author's own observation, and in part taken from his friend Mr. Heaviside: in some instances, the methods adopted were successful, when we have an account of the progress of the cure; and, where the termination was fatal, we have a detail of the appearances on

on dissection. The total number of cases is 121; and they are arranged according to the part of the body in which the disease occurred: a mode which is indeed sanctioned by great authorities, but which we think is in many respects objectionable. The author gives the following motives for his choice of it; which, our readers will probably agree with us, are not very satisfactory:

'There were so many apparent difficulties in the adoption of any particular kind of arrangement, that the attempt has been, to a certain degree, relinquished; the observations and histories will consequently be found placed in the order adopted by Sandifort, in his Museum Anatomicum; which order is the same with that followed in Mr. Heaviside's Museum, where the collection is disposed according to the natural situation of parts.'

Of a work necessarily so miscellaneous in its nature, it is impossible for us to give a full view of all the contents: but we must endeavour to afford our readers some idea of the manner in which it is executed, and to let them know in general terms what advantage they may expect to derive from a perusal of it. — The volume is divided into ten chapters, of which the titles are; 'on the diseases of the head; on some of the diseases of the neck; on some of the diseases of the chest; on the diseases of the contents of the abdomen; on some affections of the testicle and its coverings; on some of the affections of the uterus and its appendages; on lumbar abscess; on hip-disease; on disease in the bones of the superior extremity; and lastly, on some of the affections of the inferior extremity.'

As the first chapter, both from the nature of the subject and the number of cases which it contains, may be deemed the most interesting and important of the whole, we shall examine it somewhat in detail. As well as the other chapters, it is divided into sections, which generally depend merely on a subdivision of the local situation of the morbid affections. Section i. treats 'on affections of the parts external to the brain, and comprizes 13 cases, of which the first is a case of 'impaired vision, from an encysted tumor on the head.' No obvious cause could be assigned for the formation of this tumour, but it seemed to affect the function of the brain and the sight in particular; it was removed by dissection from the pericranium, with which it was found to be in contact; the wound healed without difficulty, and the patient's health was restored. The only peculiarity was the effect which the tumour appears to have had on the functions of the brain; a circumstance for which we confess it seems difficult to account, and which is not much elucidated by Mr. Howship's remarks. — The second is a case of 'suppuration beneath the scalp,' which succeeded

succeeded a severe erysipelas of the head; the matter was discharged from several artificial openings, and the patient recovered. We see nothing in this case that required publication; and we may perhaps extend the remark to the next, intitled 'critical abscess upon the face.' A young woman had a considerable degree of inflammation diffused over one side of her face, which terminated in the formation of matter just below the inner canthus of the eye: the discharge was very considerable, but it healed up without producing any deformity; and, which is more important, without injuring the lachrymal sac or its duct. — The fourth case relates a 'critical inflammation and gangrene of the face,' and was a sequela of the muscles, which proved fatal. This, although not a very common occurrence, is scarcely so rare as to deserve publication.

Case 5. is, however, more remarkable; viz. 'scrofulous inflammation of the face, followed by anchylosis of the jaws;' as the author remarks, 'affording an instance of a person having lived and enjoyed good health, for more than half a century, without the first step, preparatory to the digestion of the food, having ever been practicable.' The patient was a man of 56 years; who was admitted into the hospital for an affection of the knee, but who was found to have been from childhood totally unable to move his jaws. The impediment came on at the age of four years, and was attended with very violent pain about the angles of the lower jaw; matter was formed on each side in succession; and the bones were laid bare by the effect of the suppuration: when the active symptoms had subsided, the face remained for a long time swelled, and the immobility of the joint ensued. 'In eating, he was constantly in the habit of thrusting in his food with his fingers, by the left side of the mouth, where several of the teeth were deficient.' The complaint in the knee proved fatal, and the state of the mouth was found on examination exactly to correspond with his history of the origin of the disease. — The sixth case is a 'scrofulous affection, with partial necrosis of the inferior maxillary bones;' and the seventh, 'exfoliation from the lower jaw:' the first was not very clearly referable to any exciting cause, and, after a long and painful process, terminated in the separation of the bone: the latter was consequent on the removal of a carious tooth, the fangs of which were found to be consolidated into one compact and large mass of bone. Six weeks after this operation, severe pain and great tumefaction occurred in the part; matter issued externally; and a portion was eventually discharged which effectually relieved the complaints.

Case 8.

Case 8. A 'large ossific tumor produced by disease in the maxillary antrum.' The disease commenced by a small soft swelling in the right nostril, and continued to increase for five years, when it had entirely distorted the countenance, and impaired many of the functions; it extended four inches beyond the general line of the bones of the face, and finally proved fatal by giving rise to hæmorrhage. On dissecting the tumour, 'it proved to be a large fleshy mass or excrescence surrounding, inclosing, and extending to all the bones attached to the upper jaw, in which the superior maxillary bone, the os malæ, os nasi, and bony palate, were all involved.' We transcribe the author's pathological reasoning on the case:

'In the above case the soft parts were clearly involved in the disease, and were probably the primary seat of the affection, as well as in the case related in the Museum Anatomicum. This circumstance, as well as the tendency to bleeding, suggests the probability that the disease was of a cancerous nature, and that the bones, although very extensively affected, had most likely remained uninjured till the soft funguous vascular mass from within the cavity of the antrum began to operate, first by producing absorption of the membrane lining that cavity, and then by its peculiar and partially organized texture, not exciting regular absorption of the bone, but sufficiently loosening its general structure to admit of considerable distention in the first instance. In the progress of the disease, as might naturally be expected, the circulation in the periosteum made some effort towards repairing the mischief by the secretion of new bone, as happens in cases of necrosis, although this effort had, owing to the almost disorganised condition of that membrane, proved irregular and abortive.

'By viewing the disease in this light, we are enabled to explain not only the symptoms that attended during life, but the appearances found on dissection. It is clear there was no regular inflammation of bone, for in that event more than the natural proportion and weight of ossific matter would have been deposited, and the result would have been an unusually white and dense structure, which was not the case.*'

The ninth is a case of 'inflammation and tumor of the superior maxillary bones, arising from cold,' the progress and especially the termination of which were very peculiar. It

'* Since writing the above, I have read with much interest the particulars of two cases of a similar disease in Desault's Œuvres Chirurgicales. In both these cases it was clearly ascertained that the whole of the mischief was owing to a highly vascular fungous growth springing from the cavity of the antrum; and in one, by the exposure of this cavity, and the destruction of the fungus within it, he succeeded in curing the disease, and the patient recovered.'

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commenced with severe inflammation of the eyes, which ended in the loss of sight; at the same time, most excruciating pain was experienced below the orbits, which proceeded to produce tumours on both sides of the face, so as to close up both the eyes, and compress the nose into perhaps half of its former bulk. In this miserable condition, the patient regained a good state of general health. Mr. H. gives this description of the disease:

'On separating the palpebræ, the tunicæ conjunctivæ still retained strong marks of the severe inflammation they had long suffered. The tumors of the maxillary bones feeling as hard and firm as ivory could have been, and not in the least painful when pressed, appeared to occupy very nearly the whole space of each orbit, as well as the cavities of the nostrils, which were almost if not entirely obliterated. In the integuments covering the tumors, were several enlarged and varicose veins.

'From the slow and uniform growth of these swellings, and from the great pain that attended their production, as well as from other circumstances connected with the history, there is every reason to believe that the original affection was the means of exciting a copious secretion of ossific matter, forming a more dense and compact texture than is natural to these parts; a change which generally results from healthy ossific inflammation.'

The other four cases of this section relate to 'partial absorption of the parietal bone arising from a blow on the head,' —'partial absorption of the cranium from a wound,' — and lastly, two instances of 'malformation of the bones of the face.'

The next seven cases are contained in the second section; viz. 'effusion of blood upon the surface and into the substance of the brain;' 'large effusion of blood into the ventricles of the brain;' 'two instances of sanguineous apoplexy;' 'large effusion of blood into the substance of the cerebrum;' and 'effusion of blood into the *medulla oblongata*.' Seventeen more cases occur in the first chapter, which are included under the title of 'pain in the head,' but they are in fact a very miscellaneous collection, of which pain in the head was a symptom, although in several of the cases scarcely the most prominent. Some of the affections seem to have been induced by mental uneasiness; others by accidents, such as blows on the cranium; some ended in hydrocephalus, or the effusion of other fluids on the brain; in one, an absorption of brain took place from a tumour on the temple; in another, adhesion between the brain and its membranes; and afterward some affections of a constitutional nature, terminating in local diseases of the head. To most of the cases are appended a set of observations, either on the individual instance or on the

subject

subject generally, with the pathological remarks that are deduced from the examination after death in the cases which terminated fatally. We quote the ensuing paragraph, that it may serve as an example of the pathological reasoning which Mr. Howship employs on the effects of the effusion on the brain:

'Effusion of blood either into, or upon, some part of the brain, is, I think, in about nine cases out of ten, the exciting cause of apoplexy. Effusion of lymph, or serous fluid upon the surface of the brain in adults, is, generally speaking, more apt to connect itself with violent headach, or in its more advanced stages, convulsion. Where extreme severity of pain in the head has preceded an attack of paralysis, the case is more hopeless, than where the palsy has come on unaccompanied with that symptom. For where no pain has been felt in the head, or only a temporary sense of giddiness, the probability is that the paralytic affection may be the result of a mere effusion of blood upon the brain, an accident to which we occasionally find the brain able to accommodate itself, so that with the assistance of proper treatment, the functions of the nervous system are restored, and the patient more or less perfectly recovers. When however violent pains in the head have been the precursors of the attack, there is great reason to dread the existence of inflammation of the membranes of the brain, connecting itself with effusion either of the serum, or pus, neither of which events, when dependant upon an internal cause, have ever yet been proved by subsequent dissection, to be compatible with the recovery of the patient.'

From this specimen of Mr. Howship's 'Observations,' which is as long as our limits will permit, the reader may form a good idea of what he is to expect in the volume. It contains much matter that deserves attention, some of which is valuable from its practical utility, and some from its novelty: but the work has two defects, of a serious nature, and peculiarly unfortunate in a miscellaneous collection: the first is, the want of a good arrangement, to which we have already alluded; the second, and the more important, is the absence of all compression. The author is indeed totally unacquainted with the art of condensation, and rather seems disposed to expend what he has to say into as large a compass as he can. From his diligence in the improvement of his profession, it is probable that his pen will not be idle, and therefore we strongly advise him to pay attention to this circumstance.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1818.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Ramirez*; a Poem. By Alexander R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. pp. 77. sewed. Cawthorn. 1817.

The hint of this tale was taken from the horrors of the war in the Peninsula, and the notes seem to evince the knowlege of Spanish literature possessed by the author. We are not sure that it will not be kinder advice to exhort him to pursue these honourable studies, rather than to launch into the precarious ocean of poetry; whose waters are so constantly found to be waters of strife and of bitterness. We are far from thinking that *no* poetical *promise* appears in the work: but so much remains to be *performed*, that perhaps the young writer (for such we understand he is) had better take the gentle hint which we have felt it our duty to suggest above.

We select, however, a passage from his poem; and a very curious although repulsive fact, as it is related in his notes.

'Sweet are thy gardens, Seville! sweet the breath
That blossomed bow'rs exhale around thy wall:
'Tis beauty all; and winter's gentlest death
Blows on thy flowers, and few the leaves that fall
To strew the paths;—a yellower tint is all
That to thy groves the chill Levanté lends,
As if reflected from each golden ball
Of fragrant fruit that from the branches bends;
And in a month 'tis o'er—the little winter ends.

'It was a soft, a solemn night:
The stars scarce dared to shew their light,
The moon's pale presence was so bright;
'Twas like a mockery of day:—
It was a calm, a pleasing sight,
The twinkling of each ray.
Were you to look at the bright blaze
Of Phœbus' unreflected rays
Thro' some thin veil of silvery hue,
'Twould seem the gentle day that threw
On Seville's Alameda then
Its beams of mild repose to men.

'Full many a night the star of day
Has been reflected bright as now;
As softly too the silver ray
Imaged in Guadalquivir's flow;
And on its banks the ray, so soft,
Has lent its lovely light as oft,
To glad the gay gitano throng,
To prompt the dance, excite the song,

To

To chace all care, all thought away,
All recollection of the day,
Of which the labours could excite
No wished-for sleep at coming night,
So the unwearied mind be moved
By sounds that from its birth it loved,
By spells the heart can ne'er forget;—
The spirit of the Castagnet,
From the Guitar the soul that flows,
Were to their toil a sweet repose.'

A degree of spirit is manifested in the subjoined few lines:

'A shout for Spain and Ferdinand
Broke from each warrior of the band—
Viva! for Vengeance is at hand!
And many a Frenchman, had he heard,
Had dreamt of danger at the word;
And many a tyrant would have found
His song of death in that wild sound.—'

We now give the promised note, and take our leave of the author.

'The Andalusian women in the time of Pliny were celebrated for their grace of person, their wantonness, and inconstancy; and during the late events in Spain, they have given reason to suppose that they continue to merit that character. During the residence of the French at Seville, a period of nearly three years, more than four thousand of its female inhabitants deserted their homes, in company with the invaders and destroyers of their country, generally drest in men's clothes. Their number was ascertained by returns made to the *Xefe Politico*, or chief magistrate, after the expulsion of the French from Andalusia. The *Xefe Politico* would have found it difficult to procure returns of those with whom the French intrigued, but left behind.'

Art. 13. *Religio Clerici*, a Churchman's Epistle. 8vo. pp. 35. 3s. sewed. Murray. 1818.

This is a clever little poem, though neither very comprehensive in its design nor very powerful in its execution. We have been astonished, however, to hear the sort of praise that has been bestowed on it by some of its readers: but, on reflection, we are convinced that this excess arises from the unconscious delight which is naturally felt at the revival of the genuine style of English poetry, even in a short effort of satire. Although the author is evidently not well acquainted with the peculiar merits of the writers whom he imitates, and has neither the pointed conciseness of Pope nor the free energy of Dryden, yet even an approximation to their species of merit is hailed with pleasure among us, after a long interval of wild and Gothic barbarism;—after vain attempts to make the manner of Elizabeth become the manner of George the Third;—and after the satiety induced even by Genius itself labouring to fight its own battles without the co-operation

of its adjutant-general, Taste, and unsupported by its indispensable *corps de reserve* of Reflection and Knowlege.

The title of this small work, and a most injudicious passage which occurs at page six,

> 'Where he whose *rugged harmony* has told
> The faith he deemed a layman ought to hold,'

unavoidably recall us to that noble effort of argumentative poetry, the *Religio Laici*; an effort in which the most extensive views of religion are conveyed in the most enchanting natural graces of versification;—and of which, if the modesty of the author has been blind to his own excellence, it ill became a humble follower to complain of the '*rugged harmony*.' Rugged harmony! Scarcely a couplet in the work before us will bear a moment's comparison, in point of language, in point of cadence, in vigorous effect altogether, with the *Religio Laici*; and, though Dryden talked of his "unpolished rugged verse" on this occasion, it is bad taste, and bad poetic feeling too, to make so perverted an use of the passage.

As we have alluded to the versifying powers of this anonymous disputant, we shall begin our brief critique of his labours with that part of the subject;—and here a quotation will be the fairest mode of estimating his degree of desert:

> 'O'er Nature's work how nice a law presides!
> Her world of worlds what goodly music guides!
> Seasons and times in measur'd moments run,
> Orbs roll on orbs, and sun succeeds to sun;
> Fresh as in youth revolves the mighty frame,
> Unchang'd, though changing; many, but the same.
> Turn inward now with curious eye, and scan
> The maze of mind, the moral world of man!
> See jarring passions toss'd in wild turmoil,
> And Reason thrown to appetite a spoil;
> Here aspirations Heaven could scarce refine,
> There our brute nature lording o'er divine;
> Hands which incline, but balance not the beam;
> And Vice, or Virtue, ever in extreme:
> Creation's monarch to himself a slave,
> And Man immortal only in the grave!
>
> 'Mark this array of misery, pain, and sin;
> Think you God made it, or man brought it in?
> If God a chaos such as this could frame,
> My Devil and your God are much the same;
> But if from us the hideous rout began,
> I seek no farther for the fall of man.
>
> 'It little matters what from Eden hurl'd —
> Figure, or fact; an apple, or a world.
> With signs and symbols others may be smitten,
> I always read my Bible as 'tis written:

A golden

A golden rule from heresy to 'scape,
When some would prove the serpent was an ape.
Enough for knowledge is in this convey'd,
That God created, and man disobey'd.'

The argument proceeds with the doctrine of the Atonement, and it is at least well introduced.

This citation may suffice for the first division of the poem; in which the author generally, and with spirit, runs over the usual topics adduced in support of natural and revealed religion.

In the second part, he launches out into a strong but indiscriminate invective against that party in the Established Church, who are supposed to make too close advances in principle, to their Calvinistic brethren; and in practice (that is, by their support of the Bible-Society,) to countenance, in a degree dangerous to the safety of the Establishment, an association with all Dissenters for the purpose of diffusing copies of the Bible. Whether the reader agrees or disagrees with the author in his opinions on this topic, it must be observed that he assaults those who differ from him with too much severity of spirit; and in the midst of his zeal for his own church, (a most laudable zeal, no doubt, when charitably as well as conscientiously maintained,) he never seems to recollect that it is perfectly possible, and very common, for the most sincere Church-of-England-men to approve the *foreign* objects of the Bible-Society, even if they disapprove its *domestic* opefations.

On the matter of Religious Spouting-Clubs, or holding forth in town-halls on the most sacred points of our faith, we entirely coincide in sentiment with the author of *Religio Clerici*.

We omit, for reasons which we have intimated above, the description of the different religionists who form the mass of a Bible-Society meeting: but the subsequent stanzas may fairly be quoted; and they contain a good and *humorous* description of a scene that is condemned by itself, when it *can* afford (as it certainly can) a fair opportunity for *humour!*

'Around on cushion'd forms the movers sit,
While barer benches stimulate the pit;
And rang'd aloft, in rich and beauteous store,
Bright eyes rain influence on the crowded floor:
Well knows the saint how female arts prevail —
Without the ladies, Heaven itself must fail!

'Now lift the curtain — nothing need be chang'd,
The strings are fasten'd, and the puppets rang'd;
Plann'd are the bows, the pauses, and the starts,
And cast the characters, and conn'd the parts.
First, like the prologue of some Attic scene,
Rises the chairman, slow, and grave of mien:
Content the plot and persons to unfold,
And bid them see — what soon they shall behold.
Next, strong in limbs, and brawny-knit of frame,
Some stuttering German, with a sounding name,

Rumbles, and vomits his unmeaning note,
A wordy flood which struggles in his throat;
A sea of consonants in rugged trim,
Where vowels, thinly scatter'd, sink or swim.
He tells, what grace the Gentiles shall imbibe,
If they and theirs but largely will subscribe:
How, through their bounty, missions have been sent
To all remoter villages in Kent;
And in the next report he hopes to state,
Whitechapel's self is made regenerate!

'Unus'd to public speaking and display,
Some modest youth then tries his first essay;
Smoothly and sweet his honey'd accents flow,
His lips are faltering, and his tone is low;
His looks ingenuous "gentle Pity" win,
And "gentle Pity" wakes her nearest kin:
The soft contagion strikes the yielding fair,
And doubtful sighs their certain zeal declare;
Till, as at last the lessening stream subsides,
And the brisk nonsense into nothing glides,
Some raptur'd zany claps his hands, and cries,
"A god again hath taught us from the skies!"

'Each has his portion ere the scene be clos'd,
And Peter seconds that which Paul propos'd:
One puts the question, others grant assent,
This names a patron, that a president;
One hands the poor-man's penny box around,
One chuckles o'er a more substantial pound;
This vows their holy homage to the fair,
This thanks the landlord, that approves the chair;
The many shout Hosanna to the cause,
And swell the Christian clamour of applause!'

Art. 14. *Emmanuel!* a Poem. By a Graduate of Oxford. 8vo. pp. 45. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1817.

We did not stand in need of the proof afforded by the poem of '*Emmanuel!*' (with a mark of admiration at the end of it,) to assure us that an Oxford degree was not necessarily a *gradus ad Parnassum*. In good truth, the teeming and overburthened Press might well have been spared this superfluous *labor*; and, if all the productions of the banks of the Isis were to be like the present, *she* (the Press) might well appeal to *Alma mater*, in the following pathetic strains:

"*Extremum hunc*, Rhedycina, *mihi concede* laborem."

It is not, however, only on the score of *very* moderate poetry that we censure this anonymous author. His subject (no less aweful a subject than the sufferings and death of our Redeemer) *cannot* be a fit theme for verse; that is, for any but the most inspired strains; and even then we had rather not see the consecrated texts of the Bible forming portions of modern rhymes.

The author says, in his advertisement, that he 'trusts the occasional introduction of inspired passages from the sacred volume will be deemed a pardonable *plagiarism!*' — a term, we think, which was never so bestowed before; and he adds that he 'hopes they will not suffer from having been *transplanted!*' — a modest expectation.

In the notes, we are referred, with the same sort of novel oddity of manner, to the Evangelists, or to the Prophets, for authorities! Now, although we feel certain, from the manifest seriousness of the writer, that he means nothing wrong by all this *out-of-the-way* proceeding, still it is our duty to admonish him to beware of that familiar and censurable habit of versifying Scripture, into which he has fallen. It is a bad practice altogether; and if we never saw any thing of the sort again, beyond an allusion in a hymn or short effusion of piety, we should for our own parts think that religion had gained by such a silence; while we are sure that poetry would lose little or nothing.

At page 21, are two most quaint lines, and one quite illegible as a verse:

'Illustrious saints! reward is stor'd for you,
Your treasure is in Heaven, for there your hearts are *too!*'

'And hail the broad blaze of intellectual light.'

Again;

'Known be the mighty plan, by Mercy *schemed*,
That man by God created be by God redeemed;'

and, worse than all,

'And, borne for thankless man, e'en SUFFERING'S SELF SEEMS SWEET.'

Art. 15. *Epistles from Bath;* or Q.'s Letters to his Yorkshire Relations; and Miscellaneous Poems. By Q. in the Corner, Author of "Rough Sketches of Bath." 8vo, pp. 71. 5s. sewed. Baldwin and Co. 1817.

As we gave a due portion of praise to the former attempt of this young satirist in our Number for September last, we are sorry that the present publication does not keep the promise there made to the ear of the reader. We discern a feebleness in friend Q. which grows upon acquaintance: but let our readers see how they like

'*Epistle the Fifth, from Q. to his Aunt Ruth.*'

'My dearest Aunt Ruth, you're beginning, no doubt,
To marvel exceedingly what I'm about,
And from my long silence perhaps you suspect
I treat all my Uncles and Aunts with neglect;
Yet oft I've resolved to address you, but when
I had opened my inkstand, and mended my pen,
Some friend was announced who enticed me away,
To lounge and to laugh the best part of the day.

'It doubtless to you rather strange will appear,
That friends should already encompass me here;
But let me assure you, 'midst people of ton,
A score may as soon be collected as one.
If a stranger arrive, he possesses the power
Of forming an intimate friend in an hour:
When first introduced, by some wonderful charm,
Men's affections are linked, and they walk arm in arm, —
But no very lasting communion they seek,
They will probably *cut* at the end of the week;
Perhaps one (all tender emotions to smother)
With affectionate ardour will horsewhip the other,
Or each seek his friend, taking infinite pains,
By a *lasting impression* to blow out his brains.

'Whatever has novelty surely is best,
And friends need replacing as well as the rest;
When weary of one, we are certain to find
In a moment another that's more to our mind:
To tales of *old friendships* pray who will attend,
Since the *older* a thing is — the *nearer its end?*

'Perhaps, after this, you will not disapprove,
If I offer a few observations on love;
Not the rural delights of a mutual passion,
But what *passes* for love with people of fashion.
Most men will allow that no wife is the *worse*
For being possessed of some cash in her purse;
But of beauties there must be a wonderful dearth,
If the weight of her riches can *add* to her worth.
All suitors at present appear to commence
A new mode of measuring beauty and sense, —
The woman no value on worth can confer,
Since now 'tis the wealth that gives value to her:
Though the belles are delightful, in Bath, I am told,
That at present the real *belle metal* is gold.
In old-fashioned times, I am told, it was common
For a man to be struck with the charms of a woman,
And next of her chattels he took an account,
And thus of their means ascertained the amount.
By a different method these things are now reckoned,
The fortune comes first, and the woman comes second, —
And the fortune once gained, their regret would be small
If the woman were not to be thought of at all:
All love is absurd, and affection is stuff,
Any woman will do *who is gilded enough:*
Matrimonial forms they genteelly rehearse,
And he takes the lady "*for better for worse,*" —
And whilst the word "*better*" alludes to her pelf,
The second word "*worse*" seems applied to herself.

'Farewell, my dear Aunt, and allow me to say,
When I wed it shall be in a different way; —

Those who *marry for money* too often may prove,
That their helpmates may afterwards *wander for love*;
And though love and *short commons* may make a man sad,
To me *Doctors' Commons* seem equally bad. Q.'

One of the best little things in the collection is a poem called 'Love and a Cottage;' in which, after the usual commencement and progress of a romantic attachment, the whole affair terminates thus:

'"*Love and a Cottage*" was their former boast —
The Cottage still remains, but Love is lost;
And when for man and wife it proved too small,
No wonder Love could find no room at all.
Thus wise at length — though haply wise too late,
By mutual consent they separate:
And by a written paper we are told —
"THIS COTTAGE either to be LET or SOLD."'

We scarcely perceive any thing else worth quoting; and we *are* sure that it would be waste of time to notice the faults and failures of this thin poetical pamphlet, in the places in which they so numerously occur. On his second appearance, we are almost tempted to advise Q. in the Corner, to *come out* for the *third time* on the Greek calends.

Art. 16. *Evening Hours*; a Collection of original Poems. Crown 8vo. pp. 128. Boards. Chappell, jun. 1817.

A quotation from a splendid passage in Pope is printed in the title-page to this volume; and the introduction ends with an assertion which, combined with that quotation, excited some hope in our minds that the author had really a spark of the genuine inspiration about him. The quotation is:

"Hail, bards triumphant! born in happier days," &c.

and the assertion is here subjoined:

'Notwithstanding the present popularity of the Lake-school, the author has preferred for his model the writings of the justly denominated Augustan age.'

Agreeing, as we entirely do, in the taste of this declaration, we could not but form some flattering anticipations as we entered on the perusal of this little volume: but, *O fragiles et caducas hominum spes!* — never was a more complete disappointment created than that which we experienced. The author has presented us with an answer sent by Abelard to the letter of Eloisa!

'Your letter came; — the guilty passion ran
Swift through my veins, and bound the yielding man; —
I kiss'd the sacred seal your fingers prest,
And the warm deity inspir'd my breast; —
Not he, to whom my solemn vows were given,
When angels witness'd, and the saints in heaven;
But that lov'd, lawless, and destructive flame,
Which tears, nor oaths, nor penitence can tame;

Nor

Nor heavenly hope, nor interceding prayer,
Nor all the awful horrors of despair,
Nor death can sever, nor destruction chain,
Nor the convulsive racking start of pain.
Beneath the inspiring shade, the monkish vest,
In the gay world, or in Religion's rest;
Amid the folly of tumultuous strife,
Or in the calm still sunshine of our life,
Where'er we turn, whatever spot to choose,
Love follows close, and every step pursues;
Dares to retrace the convent's sacred bound,
And spread triumphantly his wings around;
Shakes his bright plumes, his laughing locks displays;
Nor trembles at the holy altar's blaze.
Think, then — oh, think! when thy fond letter came'—&c. &c.

Having noticed this repeated *coming* of the letter, we turn to other matters; and here we have first to observe, p. 63., a very elegant and grammatical address:

'*Learn* me to prune *my unfledged wing*.'

This original idea of an *unfledged wing* had occurred before, in the introduction:

'And there if Peace and Virtue reign,
Envenomed Malice *cannot stain*
On cottages or thrones.' P. 69.

'Or Thalia, heavenly fair.' P. 70.

'So I content as heartfelt '*plauds* to share.' P. 83.

'And *traverse*, without *travelling*, either pole.' P. 91.

'*Blab out* her inmost sadness,' &c. P. 108.

And all this from an admirer of the Augustan age of our literature! Yet the author has some fancy, as the following *shadow of a shade*, called a *Fragment of a Sketch*, on Superstition, will evince:

'When strolls the black tempest along the green wave,
And the voice of the wizard breaks forth from his cave,
When the foam of the surge usurps the rough strand,
And the spray wets the cliff from afar,
When no sound is heard save the dash on the sand,
As sweeps the fell storm the dark billows on land,
And no ray is dispell'd from a star —
She sits on the rock — her raven hair
Wild streaming, and her bosom bare,
Cold as the stone that paly brow,
And pictur'd like the front of woe;
Her trembling lip, and bloodless cheek
Volumes of charnel-mysteries speak;
Her hand seems palsied, and her heart
Back'd with a culprit's dying start;

And

And as the distant beacon beams
From the warden's keep, or the loan watch-tower,
She startles aghast at the dismal screams
She heard the last night at the deathful hour:
Again in mists she sees advance
The spirit of the fatal storm,
And gives a dark look, and a fearful glance
As slow moves the murky form.

* * * * * * *

Forth from the maiden bursts a groan,
Her eyes are clos'd, and on the huge stone,
With her hands o'er her face she lies all alone,
Till the light-dipping oar resounds on her ear,
And the fishermen's shout tells her daylight is near.'

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 17. *A concise and easy Method of preserving Subjects of Natural History*, intended for the Use of Sportsmen, Travellers, &c. to enable them to collect and preserve such Curious and rare Articles as they may wish to preserve, or to transmit in safety to any Part of the World. By William Bullock, Fellow of the Linnean Society of London; of the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh; Honorary Member of the Dublin Society; and Proprietor of the London Museum of Natural History, at the Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly. 12mo. pp. 40. To be had of the Booksellers, and at the London Museum.

The useful and ingenious directions contained in this little volume relate chiefly to the most approved method of stuffing and dressing birds for the cabinet of the naturalist: but they also include some excellent hints concerning the preservation of specimens illustrative of the other classes of organized beings. The value of this small manual is strongly recommended by the experience of its active and public-spirited author: but we could have wished that he had unfolded his instructions somewhat more in detail.

An important remark occurs at page 29.

'It will add much to the value of a collection, if gentlemen who prepare recent specimens were to note down the season of the year and the sex of the bird, (which may be discovered by examining the testes,) as many of the indigenous birds change their plumage with the season, and the same species have often been described as different, owing to difference only in the age, sex, or time of the year in which it happened to be killed.'

Mr. Bullock candidly acknowleges his inability to retain the brilliant but transient hues of the finny tribe, and we have reason to believe that his practice in this department, also, is not surpassed by that of other collectors.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 18. *A View of the Constitution of the Church of Scotland.* By George Hill, D.D., Principal of St. Mary's College, St. Andrews,

St. Andrews, &c. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 249. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

In our xlvth Vol., p. 398., we gave an account of Dr. Hill's *Theological Lectures:* a work which, as we then stated, was divided into three parts, the second being allotted to "A View of the Constitution of the Church of Scotland;" and in the preface to the volume before us we learn that the author has now been induced, by the suggestion of friends, to publish this part separately, for the convenience of those who may feel less interest in the other portions of his larger production. As we sufficiently characterized the labours of Dr. H. on the former occasion, and bore our testimony to his merits, we need do no more now than announce this separate publication, and quote the Doctor's statement of the alterations which he has made.

'I have not,' he says, 'found it necessary to make any material corrections *upon* the first edition. In the 4th section, I have given a more minute detail of the manner in which business is introduced into the General Assembly; in the 7th, I have enlarged the account of the augmentations of stipends, and of the Widows' Fund; and to the appendix I have added copies or abstracts of some recent acts of parliament, very interesting to the ministers of the Church of Scotland, and also a note containing the substance of what I stated in the third part of the *Theological Institutes*, respecting the maintenance of the poor in Scotland.'

If, even with these additions, as Dr. H. modestly apprehends, his view of the provision made for the Scotish Church should yet be deemed imperfect, he begs to refer to a professional work on the law of Scotland respecting tithes, by Mr. Connell.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 19. *Appendix to the First Edition of an Inquiry, Whether Crime and Misery are produced or prevented, by our present System of Prison-Discipline?* by Thomas Fowell Buxton: containing an Account of the Prisons at Ilchester and at Bristol. 8vo. pp. 28. Arch. 1818.

We know not to what system of politics Mr. Buxton is attached: but, whether he be Whig or Tory, we hail his recent election to a seat in the new House of Commons with satisfaction and delight. In him it is evident that the cause of benevolence will find a firm and efficient friend; one who has an inclination to examine every thing with accuracy, a faculty to explain his meaning with clearness, and a power to enforce his opinions with eloquence; and who will not be driven from the performance of what he conceives to be his duty, by feelings of dread at what is laborious or of disgust at what is unpleasant.

Not satisfied with the exertions detailed in the former publication, of which we gave a full account in our Number for May last, he has continued the useful work of inspecting Gaols; and he says that his 'enlarged experience has wrought some change in his views; it has changed conviction into certainty, and probability into a validity of evidence, which approaches very nearly to demonstrative proof.'

After

After having stated the *probable* consequences resulting from a bad system of prison-discipline, he thus proceeds:

'This admitted probability is much strengthened when experience comes to our aid: when we see that in fact the idle are rendered more idle, by months or years of inactivity and sloth; that in fact the dissolute are rendered more dissolute by association with all that is wicked; that the bold scoffer at religion is rendered more daringly impious and more desperately wicked, by intercourse with a society which confers its applause upon him who outstrips his companions in blasphemy, obscenity, and the hardihood of crime.

'But when, by a wider experience, we see that these results are not fluctuating and uncertain; that here they do, and there they do not take place, but that they follow with undeviating precision, and are to be observed in every prison of the kingdom, and with a lesser or greater degree of intensity, according to the lesser or greater degree of wisdom in the rules of that prison; then, the high probability assumes the nature of direct proof.

'I would call the attention of the reader to the uniformity of result, produced both by the one and the other system of prison discipline. It is not that sometimes the one works reformation, or that sometimes the other accelerates the progress from bad to worse; but that these results invariably follow.'

'Wherever labour, inspection, classification, and religious instruction are neglected, there have been found symptoms of misery and increasing vice;—wherever these essential requisites have been discovered, there have been also seen an appearance of health, industry, and cleanliness, with numerous instances of reformation.'

As an illustration of this uniformity of result, he describes the two gaols of Ilchester and Bristol; the former, regulated on the principles of classification, employment, and religious instruction; the latter, governed with a most disgusting disregard not only to all these objects but to the enacted laws for the proper regulation of prisons. A considerable portion of Ilchester gaol was built by the prisoners themselves; 'and that part is allowed to be, both in point of stability and neatness, the best workmanship in the jail.'

'All the prisoners are clothed in a dress, every article of which they make. In the store-room I saw a collection of suits of clothing for the men, worsted caps, dowlas shirts, jackets, waistcoats, breeches, stockings, and shoes: for the general use of the prison, beds, mattresses, sheets, linen, &c. Each of these numerous branches of labour furnishes occupation to a proportion of the prisoners; and the knowledge of each trade is perpetuated by apprenticing all who come in to some experienced workman.

'It was a sight of much interest, to see the whole process of converting wool into cloth, carried on in one yard, and that yard within the walls of a prison. In the first workshop several were engaged in washing the wool; in the second, in dying it; in the third, in hand-carding it; in the fourth, in spinning it; in the fifth, the

the looms were in activity in weaving it; and lastly, the tailors were busy in making it into clothing. In the laundry, which, I am persuaded, equals that of any institution in the kingdom, *all* the female prisoners are employed in washing the weekly changes of linen and bedding, and in making all the dresses worn by themselves and the females in the Bridewell.'

Bristol-gaol was visited by Mr. Howard in 1774; and Mr. Neild saw it in the years 1801, 1803, and 1806, in which years the average number of prisoners was 52, which he considered as much too great for the space allotted to them. No alteration has been made since Mr. Howard's visit, and the number now incarcerated, instead of 52, is 150. This inattention, for a period of more than 40 years, to the recommendations of that humane individual, would be rather a disheartening circumstance, did we not remember that he and his worthy successor were *but* individuals, and that the spirit of inquiry and of benevolent interference was not then diffused in any degree that can be compared with that which animates the present times. Will it, however, be believed that, even in these days, in the boasted æra of the 19th century, the following is a true and circumstantial description of a part of the interior of the gaol of an opulent city?

'We first entered the yard appropriated for criminals: it is an irregular space about twenty feet long and twelve wide, and was literally so crouded with its sixty-three inhabitants, as to occasion some difficulty in passing through it. In this yard is to be seen vice in all its stages; boys intermingled with men; the accused with the convicted; the venial offender with the veteran and atrocious criminal. Amongst a multitude of persons, whom the jailer described as having no other avocation or mode of livelihood but thieving, I counted eleven children,—children hardly old enough to be released from a nursery—hardly competent to understand the first principles of moral obligation—here receiving an education which, as it must unfit them for every thing useful, so it must eminently qualify them for that career which they are doomed to run. All charged or convicted of felony, without distinction of age, were in heavy irons—almost all were in rags—almost all were filthy in the extreme—almost all exhibited the appearance of ill health. The state of the prison, the desperation of the prisoners, broadly hinted in their conversation, and plainly expressed in their conduct—the uproar of oaths, complaints, and obscenity—the indescribable stench,—presented together a concentration of the utmost misery with the utmost guilt—a scene of infernal passions and distresses, which few have imagination sufficient to picture, and of which fewer still would believe that the original is to be found in this enlightened and happy country.

'After seeing this yard, and another of larger dimensions, the adjacent day-rooms and sleeping cells; the conclusion of my own mind was, that nothing could be more offensive or melancholy. This opinion, however, was speedily refuted—a door was unlocked, we were furnished with candles, and we descended eighteen long

long steps into a vault; at the bottom, was a circular space — a narrow passage eighteen inches wide, runs through this, and the sides are furnished with barrack bedsteads. The floor, which is considered to be on the same level with the river, was very damp. The smell at this hour (one o'clock) was something more than can be expressed by the term "disgusting." The bedstead was very dirty; and on one part of it I discovered a wretched human being, who complained of severe illness. This was his infirmary — the spot chosen for the restoration of decayed health — a place, one short visit to which affected me with a nausea, which I did not recover for two days. The preceding night, eighteen persons had here slept; and, according to the report of the turnkey, some of these were *untried*.

'My readers will wish to know how the pit is ventilated. There is a kind of chimney which had been closed up, it is said, by the prisoners, and never opened in the recollection of the turnkey. There is also a door at the top of the stairs, which is always closed day and night. It is then a dungeon in its worst sense — a dark, cheerless, damp, unwholesome cavern — never refreshed by a breeze of pure air, or a beam of sun-shine.'

We leave this revolting subject with the hope that the *New Gaol*, which is at last undertaken, will be benefited by the adoption of those improvements and an attention to those wise arrangements which have been suggested. — We cannot better close this article than with the comparison drawn by the intelligent author between the two prisons at Ilchester and Bristol:

'In the one, all are employed; in the other, all are idle.

'In the one, they are classed according to age and degree of guilt; in the other, health and sickness, filth and cleanliness, childhood and age, the first stage of incipient guilt, and the last stage of inveterate depravity, are alike subjected to equal hardship, and undiscriminating association.

'In the one, all the apartments are clean and sweet; in the other, "the chilly, damp, unwholesome atmosphere" is tainted with the most revolting smell.

'In the one, respect and obedience marked the conduct of the prisoners; in the other, there were strong symptoms of mutiny, and utter insubordination.

'Silence during the hours of work, order and contented application, prevailed in the one; in the other, noise, confusion, and discontent, rendered desperate by suffering.

'In the one the general appearance was healthy, in the other remarkably the reverse. The jailer at Bristol told me that if ten of his prisoners were released, he should expect that eight would soon return. The task-master at Ilchester (and his report has since been confirmed by the jailer) said, that about seven out of every hundred discharged are again committed.'

Art. 20. *Report of the Committee for investigating the Causes of the alarming Increase of juvenile Delinquency in the Metropolis.* 8vo. pp. 32. Printed by J. Dove.

The

The preceding article cannot be more properly followed than by a slight mention of this society. In its exertions, our readers must feel a very considerable portion of interest; since to them, and to the spirit which they have excited, may in a great measure be attributed not only the pamphlets of Mr. Buxton, but the interesting labours of Mrs. Fry in Newgate, and the various (though at present partial) reforms which have been introduced into several prisons. We need not enlarge on the benefits of such a society, it is enough to notice its existence. The necessity for it cannot be more fully proved than it has been in our late articles on the Police-Reports, &c.; and it is also stated in the present appendix that a child, *eight* years of age, 'has been in the habit of stealing for upwards of two years,' and 'has been brought up to the several police-offices on *eighteen* different charges.' — We heartily wish success to the philanthropic endeavours of this Committee.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Ariston is right, we conceive, in all points of his friendly letter. Our own hearts tell us that we are intitled to his commendations for pursuing a moderate course in the contested paths of politics and religion; and our long experience warns us that we must expect occasionally to displease the violent of all parties, on both grounds, as *Ariston* intimates he sometimes finds to be the case. He may rely on it, however, that we shall "pursue the even tenour of our way," satisfied with "the testimony of a good conscience," and with the approbation of the wise and well meaning of all parties, although we know that we do not thus obtain the suffrages of the majority of mankind. At this advanced period of our critical labours, we are neither to be taught our duty nor induced to deviate from its line.

For the reasons stated in the preceding notice, we pay no attention to the contents of an anonymous letter bearing the Newport-Pagnel post-mark; farther than by requesting the writer to ask himself how he has obtained a *standard*, by which he can pronounce that others are *wrong* because his and their sentiments differ, and by what rule of Christianity or of human law he is justified in attempting to vilify and injure them on this account?

We cannot at present reply to the communication of P. P. Q.

Other letters, also, remain for consideration.

*** The GENERAL INDEX to the first eighty-one Volumes of the M. R. is in such forwardness at press, that we may venture to announce its appearance in September.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1818.

ART. I. *The History of Java.* By Thomas Stamford Raffles, Esq. late Lieutenant-Governor of that Island and its Dependencies, F.R.S. and A.S. &c. &c. 2 Vols. 4to. with a Map and Plates. 6l. 6s. Boards. Black and Co. 1817.

THE Portuguese were the first Europeans who visited the Spice-islands. In 1510, Albuquerque landed at Sumatra, took Malacca on the opposite continent, and sent Antonio de Abrew to explore Java: the first port at which he arrived being called Agasai, by Barros: but its situation is somewhat uncertain. In 1521, Antonio de Britto again visited the same port, with six vessels: but some men who landed incautiously were seized and detained as prisoners. We suspect this Agasai to have been the original name of Batavia.

In 1595, the Dutch, being at war with the Portuguese, sent a fleet under the command of Houtman to offer assistance to the King of Bantam, whom the Portuguese had attacked. Their alliance was welcome, and they obtained permission to build a factory at Bantam, which was the first settlement of the Dutch in the Spice-islands.

In 1601, Queen Elizabeth fitted out a fleet of four ships, under Captain Lancaster, which visited Acheen in Sumatra in the year following, and settled a factory at Bantam also; and a letter from the king there to our Elizabeth, which Captain Lancaster brought home, is still in the State-paper-Office: a fac-simile of it would have formed a proper illustration of these volumes.

In 1610 the Dutch sent over a governor-general named Bolt; who, not satisfied with the state of the factory at Bantam, determined to abandon any farther competition with the English, and to transfer the seat of government into Jakatra, a flat and marshy district resembling his native land. Hither he removed in 1621, and gave the name of Batavia to the new seat of the store-houses.

The English factory at Bantam was maintained until 1683, but was then relinquished; and no farther step was taken to

recover a free port in Java until 1811, when Holland became a province of France, and the Dutch colonies were induced to accept the protection of Great Britain. In the September of that year, the Governor-General of Bengal made those arrangements to occupy Java, which led to the employment of Mr. now Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles * there in an official capacity, and to the consequent collection of those statistical notices of the country which are included in these instructive, elegant, and splendid pages.

Volume I. is divided into eight chapters, which commence with describing the geographical situation of Java, its extent, form, divisions, harbours, mountains, volcanoes, rivers, lakes, and soil. The seasons and climate, the general appearance of the country, its animal, vegetable, and mineral productions, are also severally characterized. The important observation is made that, at the mouth of the river Solo, which is the largest river in the island, and flows through Surakerta the metropolis of the native emperor, must eventually center the principal inland trade; and consequently that somewhere in the Straits of Madura should be sought the fittest emporium for the English merchant. Surabaya seems to be this place.

In a note to this chapter, written by Dr. Horsfield, a visit to three of the Javan volcanoes is related, and some wholly new mineralogical phænomena are observed. The account of the eruption of Tomboro is peculiarly awful; it is drawn up by Mr. Assey, and describes, we think, the most colossal phænomenon of this class on record. We transcribe it:

"The first explosions were heard on this island (Java) in the evening of the 5th of April 1815: they were noticed in every quarter, and continued at intervals until the following day. The noise was, in the first instance, universally attributed to distant cannon: so much so, that a detachment of troops was marched from Djocjocarta, under the apprehension that a neighbouring post had been attacked; and along the coast boats were in two instances dispatched in quest of supposed ships in distress. On the following morning, however, a slight fall of ashes removed all doubt as to the cause of the sound; and it is worthy of remark, that as the eruption continued, the sound appeared to be so close, that in each district it seemed near at hand, and was generally attributed to an irruption either from the mountains Merapi, Klut, or Bromo. From the 6th the sun became obscured; it had every where the appearance of being enveloped in a fog. The weather was sultry and the atmosphere close, and still the sun seemed shorn of its rays, and the general stillness and pressure of the atmosphere seemed to forbode an earthquake. This lasted several days. The

* Since the publication of these volumes, their author has received the honour of knighthood.

explosions

explosions continued occasionally, but less violently, and less frequently than at first. Volcanic ashes also began to fall, but in small quantities, and so slightly as to be hardly perceptible in the western districts. This appearance of the atmosphere continued, with little variation, until the 10th of April; and till then it does not appear that the volcano attracted much observation, or was considered of greater importance than those which have occasionally burst forth in Java. But on the evening of the 10th, the eruptions were heard more loud and more frequent; from Cheribon eastward the air became darkened by the quantity of falling ashes; the sun was nearly darkened; and in some situations, particularly at Solo and Rembang, many said that they felt a tremulous motion of the earth. It was universally remarked in the more eastern districts, that the explosions were tremendous, continuing frequently during the 11th, and of such violence as to shake the houses perceptibly. An unusual thick darkness was remarked all the following night, and the greater part of the next day. At Solo candles were lighted at 4 p.m. of the 12th; at Mágelan in Kédu, objects could not be seen at three hundred yards' distance. At Grésik, and other districts more eastward, it was dark as night in the greater part of the 12th April, and this saturated state of the atmosphere lessened as the cloud of ashes passed along and discharged itself on its way. Thus the ashes that were eight inches deep at Bănyuwángi were but two in depth at Súmenap, and less in Grésik, and the sun does not seem to have been actually obscured in any district west of Semárang.

"All reports concur in stating, that so violent and extensive an eruption has not happened within the memory of the oldest inhabitant, nor within tradition. They speak of similar effects, in a lesser degree, when an eruption took place from the volcano of Karang Asam in Bali, about seven years ago, and it was at first supposed that this mountain was the seat of the eruption. The Balinese on Java attributed the event to a recent dispute between the two Rajahs of Bali Baliling, which terminated in the death of the younger Rajah by order of his brother.

"The haziness and heat of the atmosphere, and occasional fall of volcanic ashes, continued until the 14th, and in some parts of the island until the 17th of April. They were cleared away universally by a heavy fall of rain, after which the atmosphere became clear and more cool; and it would seem that this seasonable relief prevented much injury to the crops, and removed an appearance of epidemic disease which was beginning to prevail. This was especially the case at Batavia, where for two or three days preceding the rain, many persons were attacked with fever. As it was, however, no material injury was felt beyond the districts of Banyuwángi. The cultivators every where took precaution to shake off the ashes from the growing paddy as they fell, and the timely rain removed an apprehension very generally entertained, that insects would have been generated by the long continuance of the ashes at the root of the plant. In Rembang, where the rain did not fall till the 17th, and the ashes had been considerable,

the crops were somewhat injured; but in Banyuwángi, the part of the island on which the cloud of ashes spent its force, the injury was more extensive. A large quantity of paddy was totally destroyed, and all the plantations more or less injured. One hundred and twenty-six horses and eighty-six head of cattle also perished, chiefly for want of forage, during a month from the time of the eruption.

'"From Sumbawa to the part of Sumatra where the sound was noticed, is about nine hundred and seventy geographical miles in a direct line. From Sumbawa to Temate is a distance of about seven hundred and twenty miles. The distance also to which the cloud of ashes was carried, so quickly as to produce utter darkness, was clearly pointed out to have been the island of Celebes and the districts of Grésik on Java: the former is two hundred and seventeen nautical miles distant from the seat of the volcano: the latter, in a direct line, more than three hundred geographical miles."

'The following is an extract from the reports of Lieutenant Owen Phillips, dated at Bima on the island of Sumbawa. "On my trip towards the western part of the island, I passed through nearly the whole of Dompo and a considerable part of Bima. The extreme misery to which the inhabitants have been reduced is shocking to behold. There were still on the road side the remains of several corpses, and the marks of where many others had been interred: the villages almost entirely deserted and the houses fallen down, the surviving inhabitants having dispersed in search of food. The Rajah of Sang'ir came to wait on me at Dompo, on the 3d instant. The suffering of the people there appears, from his account, to be still greater than in Dompo. The famine has been so severe that even one of his own daughters died from hunger. I presented him with three coyangs of rice in your name, for which he appeared most truly thankful.

'"As the Rajah was himself a spectator of the late eruption, the following account which he gave me is perhaps more to be depended upon than any other I can possibly obtain. About 7 p. m. on the 10th of April, three distinct columns of flame burst forth near the top of the Tomboro mountain (all of them apparently within the verge of the crater), and after ascending separately to a very great height, their tops united in the air in a troubled confused manner. In a short time, the whole mountain next Sang'ir appeared like a body of liquid fire, extending itself in every direction. The fire and columns of flame continued to rage with unabated fury, until the darkness caused by the quantity of falling matter obscured it at about 8 p. m. Stones, at this time, fell very thick at Sang'ir; some of them as large as two fists, but generally not larger than walnuts. Between 9 and 10 p. m. ashes began to fall, and soon after a violent whirlwind ensued, which blew down nearly every house in the village of Sang'ir, carrying the ataps, or roofs, and light parts away with it. In the part of Sang'ir adjoining Tomboro its effects were much more violent, tearing up by the roots the largest trees and carrying them into the

the air, together with men, horses, cattle, and whatever else came within its influence. (This will account for the immense number of floating trees seen at sea.) The sea rose nearly twelve feet higher than it had ever been known to do before, and completely spoiled the only small spots of rice land in Sang'ir, sweeping away houses and every thing within its reach. The whirlwind lasted about an hour. No explosions were heard till the whirlwind had ceased, at about 11 a. m. From midnight till the evening of the 11th, they continued without intermission; after that time their violence moderated, and they were only heard at intervals, but the explosions did not cease entirely until the 15th of July. Of the whole villages of Tomboro, Tempo, containing about forty inhabitants, is the only one remaining. In Pekáté no vestige of a house is left: twenty-six of the people, who were at Sumbawa at the time, are the whole of the population who have escaped. From the most particular inquiries I have been able to make, there were certainly not fewer than twelve thousand individuals in Tomboro and Pekáté at the time of the irruption, of whom only five or six survive. The trees and herbage of every description, along the whole of the north and west sides of the peninsula, have been completely destroyed, with the exception of a high point of land near the spot where the village of Tomboro stood."

Numerous volcanoes being scattered over Java, many districts are subject to earthquakes. In general, however, the air is salubrious and temperate; more so than in other tropical countries. The least wholesome situations are the low lands, and swamps: among which Batavia stands in a bad position, and is decidedly dangerous to European constitutions. The variety of weather between the tops of the mountains and the sea-shore is very great: indeed, Java, says the author, may be considered as possessing at least six distinct climates, each furnishing a copious indigenous botany, while the productions of every region of the world may find a congenial spot somewhere in the island. Teak and other timber abounds. The swallows, which produce edible nests, are so numerous that many of them are collected for the Chinese market; and a swallow-cavern is a property of considerable value. *

Chapter II. treats of the origin of the agricultural natives, who are referred to the Tartar stock, and are compared with the Malayus and Bugis, who are addicted to maritime and commercial pursuits, and appear to be colonists of more recent introduction. They have all yellow complexions, and their standard of beauty is a virgin-gold colour: they are easy and graceful in their deportment, and have a great sense of

* See an account of these nests in our last volume, (lxxxv.) p. 169.

propriety. A table of population is given, which attributes four millions and a half of persons to the islands of Java and Madura. They have about twenty-seven thousand slaves among them, who are exclusively the property of the European and Chinese settlers; the native Javans neither inflicting nor tolerating slavery. Some regulations were promulgated by the British, tending to abolish progressively this abuse, which are detailed at page 77., and may deserve to become examples for our West-Indian legislatures. Coloured engravings of a man and woman of Java in the lower class, and similar portraits of people of condition, illustrate the description of the text. The dress, food, and manners of the people are minutely recorded; and their practice of salting eggs may merit imitation. Extracts from popular poems, and from books of ethics, explain the local idea of human excellence.

In the third chapter, the author examines the agriculture of Java, its soil, its seasons, the tenure of landed property, the condition of the peasantry, their village-habits, their dwellings, their stock, their implements of farming, and their different kinds of land and crops, such as rice, maize, sugar, coffee, pepper, indigo, cotton, and tobacco. The Javans have a dislike to milk, turning from it as from blood, and do not milk their cows. Their reaping instrument clips off the corn ear by ear, and leaves the straw standing.

The fourth chapter treats of the manufactures, and explains with instructive minuteness the arts of making bricks, thatch, mats, paper, gun-powder, and cotton-cloths; of dying, tanning, smelting, rope-making, boat-building, felling and transporting teak timber, &c. How to glaze their pottery, or to make glass, the artisans have not yet learnt. In order to strengthen fine cotton for the muslin weaver, the threads are boiled in rice-water. A bright scarlet dye is obtained from the roots of a plant called wong-kudu. For the structure of bellows, consisting of a double forcing pump, of which the pistons are bunches of feathers, we are referred to a plate, on which we do not discover the delineation: but this ornamental piece of furniture deserves transplantation to our drawing-rooms. A sea-fish called bandeng is caught when small, and fatted for seven months in salt-water store-ponds before it is eaten. Fishing-parties are frequent, and are conducted in a manner so locally characteristic, and strange, that we quote the account:

'The *cocculus indicus*, and other intoxicating drugs, are sometimes thrown into the river, after which the fish are found floating on the surface and easily taken; this method, termed *túba*, is prohibited on large rivers: when the fish are afterwards driven down the river by a number of men into a snare laid below, the usual

term is *jámprong*. In the western districts, a fishing party of this description affords a very favourite amusement on great occasions. A time is selected when the river is moderately low; temporary stands made of the trunks of small trees or stout *bámbus* are then thrown across, each consisting of three piles, fastened together at the top and expanding below, the bottoms being pointed so as to fix in the ground. On a small stage on each, just above the surface of the water, are piled a few stones, by which they are steadied while the current is allowed a free course below. The piers or stages thus formed, answer well for the construction of a temporary bridge over the rocky or stony bed of the most irregular river. A coarse matting, made of *bámbu* or some other material, is then carried from one to the other, so as to shut the current in within a narrow space, across which a temporary platform and shed is thrown, with a sloping floor rising above the surface of the water, to where the party is assembled. The drug having been thrown into the river, a considerable distance higher up several hundred people now enter the river, and driving the half-intoxicated fish before them, they come floundering one after the other on the *bámbu* stage, to the no small amusement of the party collected, fish of a considerable size literally jumping into their laps. On these occasions, when the entertainment is given to Europeans, a great concourse of people attend, a feast is prepared, and the wild and antic music and dance of the mountaineers, performing on the *ánklang* and rude drum, give great peculiarity and zest to the amusement. Fish are sometimes struck at night by torch-light, both at sea and in the rivers; but this method is not very general.'

Chapter V. is devoted to commerce. The advantageous situation of Java in general, and of Batavia in particular, is analyzed. The native trade, the roads and inland-carriage, and the markets, also pass in review. The coasting-trade, the influence of the Chinese, the exports and imports, the relations with the Malayan archipelago, with Japan, with China, with Kamtschatka, and with Europe, are next contemplated. Dutch commercial regulations are severely criticized; and the state of the eastern islands, the natural advantages which they possess, and the causes of the depression under which the inhabitants still labour, are ably pointed out. A high post-road, passable for carriages at all seasons of the year, runs from Anyer, on the western side of Bantam, to Banyuwángi at the eastern extremity of the island, being a distance of eight hundred English miles; and along this whole road, at intervals of less than five miles, are regular post-stations, and relays of carriage-horses. The whole way, moreover, is stated to be so level, that a canal might be cut along its side.

The Dutch often manned their merchant-vessels by impress, and by kidnapping peasant-boys; regular crimps, called *selong*,

were also employed in this execrable service; and this practice now extends to the Malay pirates. Christian missionaries have been placed in their spice-islands both by the Portuguese and by the Dutch; and in some small islands the population is wholly Catholic, and in others wholly Protestant. In Ende, Timor, and Amboina, Christianity has been efficaciously planted; and, in Sir T. Raffles's opinion, Borneo offers to the missionary a probable and abundant harvest. 'The propagation of Christianity among these islands,' he observes, p. 236., 'is obviously liable to none of those objections which have been urged against its missionaries on continental possessions.' Much curious matter concerning Borneo has been placed in this section.

Chapter VI. investigates the character or the ethic peculiarities of the various inhabitants of Java. The Sundas, the lower orders, the chiefs, the state-officers, and the military class, pass in succesive review. The democratic nature of the government, according to which every village elects its own chief-constable and priest,—together with the spirit of its laws, judicial establishments, and institutions, of its police, and its habitual administration,—are specified. Extracts from the literature of Java also adorn this discussion: whence we copy some of their proverbs:

'"The most formidable enemy of a man is his own conscience, which always brings his crimes before his eyes, without leaving him the means of avoiding it.

'"The most valuable and lasting friendship is that which exists between persons of the same rank.

'"The severest misfortune which a man can suffer, is to be deprived by force, of the land upon which he lives and which he has cultivated, or to have his wife and children taken from him by force.

'"Man loveth nothing more than his own children, and he always esteems his own feelings in preference to those of others.

'"Of all birds the *chíong* (miner) is the most highly prized, because it has a beautiful appearance and can imitate the speech of man.

'"A woman who loves her husband so tenderly, that at his death she wishes to die with him, or surviving never marries again, but lives as if she were dead to the world, is valued above all others of her sex.

'"The lessons of our parents are like the lessons of the ten wise masters. No master can be called wise, unless he attends to what is written, as well on sacred as on worldly subjects. Such a master may be justly called a superior mortal; for it is a difficult task to learn and to attend to the same, even as difficult as to catch and tame a wild elephant on the edge of a precipice without injury.

'"Melancholy

' " Melancholy is it to see a young man of condition unacquainted with the sacred writings; for, be he ever so gracefully formed or elegant in his manners, he remains defective; like the *túrawári* flower, which, notwithstanding its fine appearance and bright red colour, emits no fragrance whatever.

' " No man can be called good or bad, until his actions prove him so. Thus if a man declares that he has never taken any but delicious food, it will be shewn in his appearance. If he is stout and well-looking, then may he be credited; but if, on the contrary, he is poor and lean, then it is impossible that he should have lived on good food.

' " In like manner, when a man pretends to be the friend of mankind, it must be proved by his behaviour when he receives the visits of others. If he receives his guests with kindness and hospitality, then is he the friend of mankind, otherwise he is not so. And further, if a man pretends to have fasted and prayed, and to have become a holy man, it will be known whether he is really so, by the success which attends the prayers which he puts up for another: if the Deity hears them not, then is he a deceiver.

' " A caterpillar has its poison in its head, a scorpion in its tail, and a snake in its teeth, but it is unknown in what part of the body the poison of man is concealed: a bad man is therefore considered poisonous in his whole frame.

' " A child which is indulged by its parents in every thing is like a young fish in a clear and pure stream, in which it grows and sports, unconscious whither it may lead." '

The following is a remarkable instance of natural abilities among the Javans:

' Of the capacity of the Javans to improve, of their anxiety to advance in civilization, and of the rapidity with which they receive knowledge and instruction, an instance might be given in the case of the two sons of the Regent of *Semárang*, *Kiái Adipáti Súra Adimangála*. This Regent, who, next to the *Panambáhan* of *Súmenap*, is the first in rank as well as character, shortly after the establishment of the British government on Java, sent his sons to Bengal, in order that they might there receive an education superior to what they could have at home. They remained there for about two years, under the immediate protection and patronage of the late Earl of Minto, and on their return not only conversed and wrote in the English language with facility and correctness, but evinced considerable proficiency in every branch of knowledge to which their attention had been directed. The eldest, in particular, had made such progress in mathematics before he quitted Calcutta, as to obtain a prize at a public examination, and had acquired a general knowledge of the ancient and modern history of Europe, particularly in that of Greece and Rome. He is remarked for his graceful and polite manners, for the propriety of his conduct, and for the quickness and correctness of his observation and judgment. As this is the first instance that has been

been afforded of the capacity of the Javan character to improve under an European education, it may enable the reader to form some estimate of what that character was formerly in more propitious times, and of what it may attain to hereafter under a more beneficent government. Among all the English on Java, who have had an opportunity of conversing with this young nobleman, there has not been one who has hesitated to admit, that his mind, his qualifications, and conduct, would be conspicuous among their own countrymen at the same age, and that, as an accomplished gentleman, he was fitted for the first societies of Europe. This young man, *Ráden Sáleh*, is now about sixteen years of age, and when the British left Java was an assistant to his father as Regent of *Semárang*.'

We trust that this promising young sovereign will soon have the pleasure of perusing, in these very volumes, such an account of his country as probably its native literature does not furnish; and that he will thus be assisted in awakening its dormant energies, and directing the course of its improvement.

Chapter VII. marshals the ceremonies of the court; discountenances the crouching deference to superior rank; and describes the regalia, the processions, the ranks and titles, the ambassadors, — the ceremonial attending births, marriages, and funerals, — the festivals, amusements, dramas, puppet-shows, dances, tournaments, chases, tiger-fights, bull-fights, — the exposure of criminals to wild beasts, — games of skill and chance, — and other such customs and usages. Coloured engravings of a bride and bridegroom, and of a dancing-girl, illustrate the description of a wedding. The art of poisoning tigers is well understood by the mountaineers of Java, of whom a somewhat episodical account occurs in this section.

The language of Java is the subject of Chapter VIII.; and a comparative vocabulary is given of the various dialects in use. The alphabet consists of twenty consonants, and twenty auxiliary characters serving for long and short vowels and accents; which are severally engraved. It is written from left to right. The literary language of the country approaches nearer to Sanskrit than the spoken, which favours the suspicion that Braminical religion and literature are an importation. A mythological work called the *Kanda* is epitomized; as also a book of ethics called Niti Sastra, an epic poem called Brata Yud'ha, and some other poems and romances. The Javans possess a version of the Koran. Their prosody is explained: their music, painting, and architecture are criticized; and their chronology and astronomy are recorded. A map of Java terminates the first volume.

The

The second volume reveals their religious creed; to which the ninth chapter is consecrated. Traces occur of a native paganism; of a Braminical establishment introduced by an early dynasty of sovereigns; and of a Mohammedan conversion about the year 1475, when first was established, by compulsion, that form of faith which is now professed by the leading people. Some tendency to Christian opinions may be remarked among the persons of half-breed, who have grown up in the neighbourhood of the Dutch settlements. In the author's opinion, the Javans are but little attached to Mohammedanism, and would welcome new missionaries. Sculptured ruins of Hindoo temples abound; and many families who profess Mohammedanism still preserve as family relics the old idols, and lend them to Sepoys to be worshipped. Engravings are introduced of such sculptures, inscriptions, and idols: the date 1362 was found inscribed on one of them. On the introduction of the doctrines of the Koran, those persons who refused to be converted were persecuted, and fled in considerable numbers to the island Bali; where they continued to profess the Hindoo religion, and probably preserve many monuments connected with Javanese antiquities.

Sir T. Raffles describes at great length the numerous temples with which Java abounds, and we shall borrow an extensive portion of his account:

'*Chándi Séwu, or The Thousand Temples.*

'In the whole course of my life I have never met with such stupendous and finished specimens of human labour, and of the science and taste of "ages long since forgot," crowded together in so small a compass as in this little spot; which, to use a military phrase, I deem to have been the head quarters of Hinduism in Java. These ruins are situated exactly eight hundred and thirty-five yards north-north-east from the northern extremity of those of *Lóro Jóngran*, and one thousand three hundred and forty-five yards from the high road opposite the *bándar's* house. Having had in view all the way one lofty pyramidal or conical ruin, covered with foliage, and surrounded by a multitude of much smaller ones, in every stage of humbled majesty and decay, you find yourself, on reaching the southern face, very suddenly between two gigantic figures in a kneeling posture, and of terrific forms, appearing to threaten you with their uplifted clubs: their bulk is so great, that the stranger does not readily comprehend their figure. These gigantic janitors are represented kneeling on the left knee, with a small cushion under the right ham, the left resting on the retired foot. The height of the pedestal is fifteen inches, of the figure, seven feet nine inches to the top of the curls; total, nine feet. The head twenty-six inches long: width across the shoulders, three feet ten inches. The pedestal just comprises the kneeling figure and no more.

'The

'The character and expression of the face I have never met with elsewhere: it belongs neither to India nor to any of the eastern isles. The countenance is full, round, and expressive of good humour. The eyes are large, prominent, and circular; the nose is prominent and wide, and in profile seems pointed; the upper lip is covered with tremendous mustaches; the mouth is large and open, with a risible character, shewing two very large dog-teeth; the under lip thin, and the chin very strait and short; forehead the same; no neck visible; the breast broad and full, with a very prominent round belly; the lower limbs, as well as the arms, extremely short and stout. But the most extraordinary appendage of these porters is a very large full-bottomed wig, in full curl all over, which, however, the Bramin assured me (and I really believe) is intended to represent the usual mode in which the *Moonis* are supposed to dress their natural hair; these gigantic genii, whose duty it is to guard the sanctuaries of the gods, requiring as formidable an appearance as possible. In other respects the images are in the Hindu costume. The *lungota* passes between the legs, the ends of it decorated, hanging down before and behind, over the waistband, and a curious square-linked chain, which encircles the waist. A snake entwines the body diagonally over the left shoulder, the tail and head twisted on the left breast. A small ornamented dagger is stuck in the girdle on the right loins. A pointed club of an octagonal form is held up in the right hand, and rests on the knee; the left hand, dropped down his side, grasps a circled snake, which seems to bite the fore part of the left arm. The necklace is of fillagree-work (such as is called *star*); and the ears, which are large and long, are decorated with the immense ornamented cylindrical ear-rings worn by the Javan women of the present day. Round the two arms are twisted snakes, and round the wrist bracelets of beads. The waistband extends nearly to the knees. From the waist upwards the figure is naked.

'The same description is applicable to the eight other pair of images, which guard the other approaches of *Chándi Séwu*, at twenty feet distance from the exterior line of temples, and facing inwards to each other about twelve feet apart. Each of these statues and its pedestal is of one piece of a species of pudding stone, which must have required great care in working.

'The whole site or ground-plan of these temples forms a quadrangle of five hundred and forty feet by five hundred and ten, exactly facing the cardinal points. The greater extent is on the eastern and western sides, as there allowance has been made for wider avenues leading up to the grand central temples situated within, while on the north and south sides the spaces between the small exterior temples are all alike. There is no vestige of an exterior boundary wall of any kind. The outer quadrangle, which is the limit of the whole and which encloses four others, consists of eighty-four small temples, twenty-two on each face: the second consists of seventy-six; the third of sixty-four; the fourth of forty-four; and the fifth, or inner parallelogram, of twenty-

twenty-eight; in all two hundred and ninety-six small temples, disposed in five regular parallelograms. The whole of these are upon a uniform plan, eleven feet and a half square on the outside, with a small vestibule or porch, six feet two inches long, by four feet and a half externally. Within is an apartment exactly six feet square, with a doorway five feet nine inches high, by three feet four inches wide, directly opposite to which stands the seat or throne of the statue which occupied the temple. The walls inside rise square to the height of seven feet ten inches, and quite plain; thence the roof rises about five feet more in a plain pyramid, and above that a perpendicular square rises two feet more, where the roof is closed by a single stone. The interior dimensions of the porch or vestibule in front were three feet and a half by two and a half. The thickness of wall to each temple was about two feet nine inches, and of the vestibule one foot four inches. The exterior elevation of each must have been about eighteen feet, rising square to the cornices about eight or nine feet, according to the irregularities of ground, and the rest a fanciful superstructure of various forms, diminishing in size to the summit, which was crowned with a very massive circular stone, surmounted with another cylindrical one rounded off at the top. The whole of each superstructure thus formed a kind of irregular pyramid, composed of five or six retiring steps or parts, of which the three lowest appeared to me of the figure of a cross, with intermediate projecting angles to the two lower, and retired ones to the upper step, which varied in position also from the lower ones. Above that the summit appeared to rise in an octangular form, diminishing gradually to the stones above described. The same kind of stone appears also to have been placed on the four projecting angles of at least the lower part of the elevation above the body of the building. I saw none that were complete; but from the detached views I had of all, I think either nine or thirteen similar ones were disposed at the various points of the roof. Besides these, the roofs had little in the way of decorations to attract notice, beyond a profusion of plain cornices, bands, fillets, or ribbands, forming a kind of capital to the crest of each stage of the superstructure, and on one of them small square pilasters cut in bas-relievo at intervals.' —

'We now come to the great temple. You ascend from each of the cardinal points by a flight of fourteen stone steps, all rough hewn, and now mostly disjointed or displaced. The length of each flight was about sixteen feet to the edge of the upper step, the breadth eight over all, and the height about ten feet, that being the elevation of the terrace of the temple. The walls of this elevated terrace projected on either side of the steps, so as to form with the walls that received the steps three sides of squares, which the Sepoy who was with me immediately said must have been intended for small tanks, one at each side of every flight of steps, for the devotees to purify themselves in before their appearance at the shrine of the deity. On the third step from the bottom, on each side of it, was a figure of *Hastu Singh* (or the lion

[illegible] in the elephant's mouth), looking outwards and having a very fine effect. The same figures, facing outwards, supported each side of the four entrances to the vestibules. The terrace has a breadth of three feet and a half, clear of the walls of the temple all round, and as far as I could discern in the ruin, following the angles of the edifice.

The form of the building is a cross, with the same intermediate angular projections, in order to afford room for the grand central apartment. Entering from the east you pass through a portal, five feet eight inches in width by five feet nine inches in length (which is the thickness of the walls), into an outer vestibule, twelve feet wide by ten deep. The walls of this vestibule are ornamented with three niches, a large and two smaller ones, with pointed arches, and all the profuse decoration of Hindu architectural sculpture. In most of these niches remained the throne of the inferior deities, who the Sepoy said must have originally occupied them: not one was now to be found. The throne was generally a single stone, decorated in front with a vase and profusion of flowers, filling the whole space in a natural easy manner. Leaving this room you pass on through a doorway four feet five inches in width, and four feet in depth (the thickness of the wall), but of uncertain height, to a second vestibule, fourteen feet nine inches wide, and four feet four inches deep. At either end of this vestibule is a door, twenty-six inches wide in the clear, four feet two inches deep in the passage or width of the wall, and barely five feet and a half high, which communicates with the surrounding terrace. This vestibule is perfectly plain, with the exception of a raised spiral fluting, which surrounds the large portal or gate leading into the central apartment, and terminates near the bottom steps in the representation of the elephant's mouth and trunk, simply cut in relief on the wall, with no other addition but several strings of beads descending from the top of his proboscis. The roofs of the vestibules or limbs of the building, though entirely fallen, were originally shaped like the Syrian, that is pointed and falling down to the upper cornice of the walls, with a gentle double swell or curve. The northern limb is an entire mass of confusion and ruin; but the description just given of the double vestibule on the east side of the temple, answers with a very trifling variation of dimensions to those on the south and west, but that instead of the large and spacious portal to be seen on the east, there are five very lofty niches let into the main walls about a foot, with pointed Indian arches, standing on square pilasters of the same fashion, the capitals of each of which are supported by a small, squat, doubled-up human figure, having its arms embowed over its head, which my Cicerone informed me was very common in the like situations in India. He concluded, also, that images of the gods had occupied the niches in front against the main walls of the temple, on the north, south, or west sides; but we saw not one, and only the centre niches had even the thrones remaining. The niches and pilasters are surmounted with a very deep elaborate projecting cornice, crowned again with five

five representations of small temples on each side, and immediately over these are seen the two swells or curves of the original Syrian roof.

'So far we have gone on a level with the external terrace or platform which surrounds the whole; but on the east side you ascend by a flight of eight steps, at least six feet high, through the spacious portal before mentioned, which is twelve feet high from the top of these stairs, and six feet eight inches wide in the clear, formed entirely of massive blocks of stones, well squared. The depth of the passage or thickness of the wall is ten feet. The top of the portal, which is flat or square externally, surmounted in the centre with a very large and terrible gorgon visage, changes with the ascent of the stairs, in a very artful manner, to the pyramidal form, internally, formed by the overhanging of the stones to resemble inverted square steps closed at the top with a single stone. You thus find yourself in the *sanctum sanctorum*, the spot which has rewarded the toil and zeal of many a weary pilgrim. My expectations were raised, and I imagined I should find the great and all-powerful Brahma seated here, in glory and majesty proportionate to the surrounding splendour and magnificence of his abode. Not a single vestige, however, remains of *Brahma*, or of any other deity. The apartment is a plain, unadorned square, of twenty-one by eighteen feet. Four feet from the eastern wall or door is a raised platform, three feet and a half high, extending all across the room (north and south), surmounted with a deep projecting capital or crest, to ascend which are two small flights of six steps each, situated at the extremities on either hand. The walls of this sanctuary, to the height of about forty feet, rise square and plain, and are composed of uniform blocks of greyish stone, well squared, and fitting closely without cement, grooved into each other, according to the general manner of all the buildings at *Brambánan*. Above this is a projected cornice of three or four stones, from which the roof assumes the pyramidal form of overhanging stones, or inverted steps, to the height of ten feet nearly; thence it rises perpendicular, plain and square, for about ten feet more, and hence to the top in an octangular pyramid of overhanging stones, approaching each other gradually by tiers or layers for nearly fifteen feet more, where it closes finally with a stone about two and a half or three feet across.

'The exterior of this great temple contains a great variety of ornamental sculpture; but no human or emblematical figures, or even niches in the walls, as in all the small temples surrounding it. The capitals of the pilasters (as in the niches against the body of the temple) are indeed supported by the very diminutive figures before mentioned; but nothing further appears in that way throughout the whole structure. The style, taste, and manner of execution, are every where light, chaste, and beautiful, evincing a fertile invention, most delicate workmanship, and experience in the art. All the figures occupying the niches of the smaller temples (and there were thirteen to each of the

two

two hundred and ninety-six) are a wonderful variety of mythological characters, which the Brahmin said figured in the Hindu legends.'

Chapter X. chronicles, in an abbreviated form, the principal facts of Javanese history, until the establishment of Mohammedanism; and the eleventh continues this history to the arrival of the British forces in 1811. The annals terminate with a chronological table of events; after which succeeds a geographical account of the principal divisions of Java and Madura; with an estimate of the population of each.

The appendix contains (A) tables of marriages and deaths kept at Batavia, which display unexampled mortality; (B) a dissertation on the Japan trade; (C) a translation of the Javan code of laws; (D) a proclamation of the British government; (E) a comparative vocabulary of the Malayu, Javan, Madurese, Bali, and Lampung languages; (F) account of Celebes, to which is added a comparative vocabulary of the languages there prevalent; (H) a translation of a mythological work called Manek-maya; (I) a translation of an inscription found on a stone in Java; (K) account of Bali; (L) a second British proclamation, and some revenue-instructions; (M) memorandum respecting weights and measures.

This excellent statistical account of Java is one of the completest works of the kind extant in our literature, and does the highest honour to the accomplished compiler. In whatever hands the ultimate sway of the island may repose, it is in this work that an European, or indeed a native, administrator will necessarily have to look for information and advice;—it is here that he will imbibe philanthropical tolerance and practical wisdom. To the other merits of the performance, may be added its great power of amusing; for so skilfully and tastefully are the topics of attention selected, arranged, and managed, that a comprehensive knowlege of the country is acquired not only without fatigue or intense application, but rather as a welcome pastime and a literary indulgence. The enterprising part of the commercial world will not consult these volumes in vain. Java offers accessible markets to British speculation: pottery, cutlery, glass, and various stuffs of our manufactures, might find there a considerable vent, if stores were deposited and superintended at Surabaya, at Gresik, or at some other convenient sea-port.

Sir T. Raffles is now gone out as Governor to Sumatra; and we hope that he will again render us indebted to him by furnishing us with fresh information respecting that island.

ART.

ART. II. *Cambridge Prize Poems:* being a complete Collection of the English Poems which have obtained the Chancellor's Gold Medal in the University of Cambridge. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

THESE are the first-fruit offerings of the Muse of Granta, in return for the encouragement to the composition of English verse which has been afforded by the present illustrious Chancellor of the University. We are happy to hail any thing like an additional proof of attention paid to the cultivation of classical acquirements, and particularly to the improvement of our native style of poetry, in the bowers of Academus. Oxford has long taken the lead of her Sister-University in this path of literature; and indeed, from the decided prevalence of mathematical study at Cambridge, it became doubly desirable to see a stimulus administered to the pursuits of taste: but such a stimulus will never, we fear, be effectually applied until classical examinations make a part of the necessary probation for the first degree; — until public instead of comparatively private honours are bestowed on the preliminary studies which formed and fashioned those twin-stars of scholarship, a Bentley and a Porson. The classical medals are much; the University-scholarship is more; and the late increase of these honours is a subject of sincere congratulation: but there are hundreds whom modesty, or perhaps inadequacy of talent, may now deter from attempting to ascend these heights of Grecian and Roman fame, in whom the latent seeds of taste are for ever buried, and whose future discharge of their various official duties, whether ecclesiastical or civil, is weakened and impeded, by the want of classical accomplishment in youth. This larger portion of juvenile academics are now all indiscriminately shortened or lengthened, by violent amputation or as violent stretching, on the Procrustean rack of mathematics. They are all put to *the question* in one uniform manner; and, unfortunately, the commonest understanding, with a very moderate degree of application, is capable of *getting up* a sufficient quantum of angles and *x*'s, *y*'s, and *z*'s, for the attainment of a *multitudinous* degree. It necessarily follows that an immense inundation of raw, unformed, aukward, ignoramuses annually overflows the banks of the Cam, and deluges the land with *monsters;* who on the credit of a mouthful of mathematics scrawl *A. B.* (which by the way implies no knowlege of the *grammatical A. B. C.*) at the end of their north-country denominations, and commence *teachers* (quotha!) at half

the classical and mathematical academies in the country. How well, at the same time, the scraps of Paley or of Locke, which they have picked up at College, qualify them for the advocates of moral certainty, and for the logical enforcement of the truths of religion, may easily be imagined. Proud of their habits of *proving*, in their petty circle of geometry and algebra, they must be admirably calculated to illustrate and to apply the principles of probable reasoning in this great *World of Faith*, "wherein we live, and move, and have our being."

We are, however, wandering from the matter before us; and we crave the pardon of our readers, and return to the Cambridge Prize Poems. The great subject, on which we have so slightly touched, would require a volume to explain and to enforce our arguments on it; arguments indeed which, we believe, every reasoning and unprejudiced person in the United Kingdom has long entertained in his own breast, and which every day are spreading wider in the free discussions of society. We would dilate on our hopes from the Education-Committee in the new parliament: but here we should be launching into a *seven years'* ocean of futurity, which would carry us far indeed from 'Columbus,' and his newly discovered world.

If moderate poetry be very mawkish food, then indeed Mr. Waddington of Trinity College will not, we fear, greatly exhilarate his readers with the poem of *Columbus*, which opens this collection. It is a sort of diluted copy of the *Pleasures of Hope*, in which the too frequent exclamations and personifications of that beautiful poem are still more copiously exclaimed and personified. We are far, however, from denying that Mr. Waddington has both a classical mind and a poetical taste: but these good qualities are unfortunately compatible with much feebleness of manner, and much insipid tameness of phraseology. Our readers shall judge, by an extract, of the justice of our designation of this author's character:

> 'But now no tempests rage — a gentle gale
> Sighs thro' the shrouds and lingers round the sail.
> The ev'ning clouds, that hover o'er the west,
> Glow with a softer tinge, a lovelier vest;
> The bird in silence wings his way to greet
> The shady vallies of his native seat.
> Hesper leans list'ning from his throne on high
> To floating strains of heav'nly harmony;
> Then all is dark, and all is still again,
> And night sits brooding o'er the silent main.

"Is

" Is it a fire * that glimmers from afar?"
'Tis but some lonely, melancholy star:
Or meteor, that descends to drink the wave,
Or gem, that lights the sea-fiends to their cave.
" It moves — again it moves — and on the sand
Sheds its glad beam — it must — it must be land!"
How sweet to sad misfortune's way-worn child
Wanders the streamlet thro' the trackless wild!
How sweet, escap'd the horrors of the storm,
The trembling moon unveils her virgin form!
But oh! how far more sweet that sacred light
Beam'd life and glory on Columbus' sight.'

The ensuing is more in the imitative style to which we have alluded above:

' What art thou, Man, without the ties that bind
Congenial souls, and harmonize the mind?
Without the hopes that thrill, the fears that move,
The strings that vibrate to the voice of love?
Without the tear that gems Compassion's eye?
— A dark cloud driv'n across the midnight sky.
Yet thou, degraded Savage, thou shalt bless
The tender bond of social happiness;
Shalt rise to prouder thoughts, shalt learn to scan
Thy native worth, and feel thyself a man;
Then too Religion's self shall smile, and fling
Æthereal love, like dew-drops, from her wing.'

The opening is intended to be *very* like Campbell:

' Ye frowning tow'rs, where erst the bright array
Of Moorish warriors glanc'd a fearful day;
Ye mosques majestic, where fanatic War
Yoked his red steeds to pale Religion's car —'

' Majestic' and ' fanatic' in one line are somewhat too forcible, and not quite musical enough.

' *Like a gem twinkling to the reckless deep.*'

" Full many a gem," &c. we conceive never to have been more completely spoiled.

' Start into light from Ocean's breast, ye Isles,
Breathe all your sweets, and lavish all your smiles
Hail him, ye Stars,' &c.

' Roll on, thou Sun,' &c. &c.

' Child of the rocks, and *nursling of the storm.*'

Vide *Pleasures of Hope.*

' * Columbus himself discovered a light on shore, which he immediately saluted as an emblem of the religious light he was going to spread.'

The next candidate, whose name may be more easily whistled than spoken, a Mr. Whewell, also of Trinity, ("Phœbus! what a name!") tells us in his poem of *Boadicea* that

> 'Indignant Ister rolls his subject-flood,
> *And feels his eddies warm with native blood.*'

The great author of the great "Alexander" would have envied this bold, hot river! His own Granicus is nothing to it.

> 'Thou ask'st the north her bleak and barren fields.'

This Latin use of the verb *to ask*, with two accusative cases after it, we cannot suffer to pass current.

> 'Till like *the* dove *the* olive branch that bore. (*Whewell.*)
> Till like *the* cat that kill'd *the* mouse of yore. (*Rev.*)

We subjoin, with pleasure, a passage in happier numbers:

> 'Ye Powers that guard your Albion's rude domains,
> Her trackless wilds and grey-extending plains,
> Untrod since Nature's hand in ruin hurl'd
> The bands of rock that chain'd her to the world;
> Whom the rapt Druid sees in terrors rove
> 'Mid the deep silence of his gloomy grove,
> Or where your temples vaulted by the skies,
> A frowning band of giant columns rise;
> And ye who haunt the shores where Mona rides
> Securely moor'd amid the rocking tides,
> Bend from your cloudy car.'

Yet again we return to Nat. Lee:

> '*Unbodied Furies howl along the walls.*'

They *must* be the walls of Bedlam. — The passage that succeeds, about Thames displaying 'wrecks of palaces of former days' under his waters, is borrowed from a divine little song in the Irish Melodies.

Mr. W.'s description of Boadicea is spirited and in good taste; though the expression '*steal* the soul to love' is unfortunate, as it suggests a kindred phrase of totally different meaning.

The address to Beauty that follows,

> 'Oh Beauty! Heav'n-born Queen!'

would calm, we think, the pulse of the most intoxicated young dragoon.

> '*All pay the unclaim'd* homage of the soul.'

The ear that admits this line as musical is imperfectly constituted.

——'the

——— ' the dove-like eye
That asks, omnipotent, for sympathy,
Shook to its base *the isle's* eternal rock.'

It is surprising that these academics, in frequent instances, shew themselves to be ignorant of Pope's canon concerning the open vowel.

' *Nodding ruins in a lake of blood* !!!

We congratulate the grave, *long-bearded*, and *full-bottom-wigged*, guardians of taste in the University, on their increased vivacity, energy, and *youthfulness* of intellect; for to have endured such a burst of bombast as the above would, in their older and duller days, have been impossible.

' While wet with blood, her long bright tresses tost,
Float like a standard o'er the rallying host!'

We are really frightened, and beg to retire from the contest.

We must, however, for a while, linger to behold Boadicea under the sacred oak, in all the majesty of distress, and uttering the last inspired strains of vengeful exultation. She sees and bodies forth the fall of Rome. This part of the poem gives the promise of *governed genius*, and

" Shows most true mettle when you check its course:"

but we must still condemn such lines as

' Art thou the place *was once* eternal Rome?'

The University should immediately put its veto on these ungrammatical omissions.

The *Wallace* of Mr. Smirke (of St. John's), which ensues, we are sorry to be obliged to condemn as an almost entire failure; a weak, puerile effort, that might have passed very well in the sixth form at a public school; if public schools, in general, afforded any encouragement to English composition. Whether they are censurable in this omission, as far as poetry is concerned, may with some high-flown minds be a doubtful question: but every reasonable person must agree in thinking that English composition in prose, and English literature altogether, are lamentably neglected at these noble seats of education. With regard to the poem before us, what honour can be reflected on the writer of such lines as the following, were he covered with medals from head to foot?

' But vain is Reason's voice, and weak her sway,
When thirst of endless empire leads the way,
And wild Ambition beckons and invites
To trample on mankind's insulted rights;
To stand, with gory lance and flag unfurl'd,
High o'er the ruins of a prostrate world:
Then fair Religion seeks her inmost cell,
Indignant Justice bids a long farewell,

And Science breathes a last, a dying moan,
And sorrowing Virtue pines unpitied and unknown.'

May we not call this the very *dish-water* of the Moral Descriptive?

We are happy to be able to give a much better account of the *Mahomet* of Mr. Hamilton Sydney Beresford, of Clare Hall. Although somewhat Byronian in his faults, he has also the merits of that peculiar style; and we have now only to exhort him, as he has clearly shewn his power of excelling after this irregular model, to adopt a purer standard of composition in future, and to endeavour to attain a much greater degree of correctness and elegance, without any diminution of energy and spirit.

The sort of blemishes to which we allude, in part, are the following:

'When heroes *tramp* the harvest from his soil.'

'*Pre-dooms* the blow.'

'*Chased by the scowl of wan, unresting fear.*'

This is the true nonsensical sublime.

What rhymes are the subjoined, to succeed each other, uninterruptedly, in the 19th century! 'glow, woe;' 'breast, rest;' *East, defaced*;' 'glow, woe,' again!

Thus it is;—when once the taste is so far corrupted as to imitate the ungovernably licentious manner of our popular minstrels, it is impossible to foresee into what extravagance of bombast, what bathos of insipidity, or what feebleness of repetition, the unhappy mimic may be seduced. It is pitiful, indeed, to observe men of genius copying that which in their hearts they must condemn; and giving up, for a little brief popularity, all the permanent and honourable applause of their native land. It would be vain, in the midst of such and far greater liberties of versification, to admonish a poet of this school that even the successive rhymes of 'shone, throne;' 'Rome, bloom;' offend against a nicer metrical ear: but the former instance of this kind of transgression is too gross to escape any observation.

'*From the dark swell of thought's devouring wave.*'

This, again, is the genuine metaphysical bombast.

Let us turn to the better passages of this animated, although imperfect, composition.

'To stern Mohammed Mecca bends the knee,
The doubtful prize of craft or victory.
His proudest foes are at the conqueror's feet;
The fickle crowd their injured Prophet greet—
But where is she, from whom th' enthusiast drew
The first bright glance of hope's inspiring view?

Cadijah

Cadijah sleeps where silence darkly reigns,
Nor shares his triumph now, who shared his pains.
Oh! blame her not, that fondly she believed,
For oft the purest heart is most deceived.
His ardent breast, the den of loose desire,
For many a fair had nursed unhallowed fire;
Yet on the lap of youthful love reclined,
Cadijah's matron-shade would soothe his mind;
And once, when beauty's pride presumed to claim
A praise superior to her treasured name;—
"No—by yon heavens," he cried, "Cadijah gave
Her generous love, when only love could save;
Unfriended, poor, despised, she sought me then—
A heart so true shall never beat again!"

'By fraud or force advanced, Mohammed's name
Outstripped each hope his earlier years could frame:
The convert's humble soul that name adored,
Hung on his lips, and drank each holy word.
Who scorned his doctrine, feared the teacher's arm:
—Himself alone his wiles could never charm,
Nor sway, nor wealth, nor pleasure, hush to rest
The fiend, for ever wakeful in his breast.
Oh! When he traced the mazes of his plan,
How would his soul contemn deluded man,
Light as the desert sand, on every blast
Of passion's burning gale at random cast;
But on himself he wreaked his deepest scorn,
Who stooped to cheat a creature so forlorn.'

Have we not something here which reminds us of Mr. Moore's "*Veiled Prophet?*" The date of this prize-poem (July 1816) precludes the possibility of the younger author being the plagiarist: but, judging by this and some other passages of 'Mahomet,' we might fancy that the harp of Ireland had deigned to borrow a string or two from the humbler instrument that hung on the willows of Camus. We are pleased to observe that instrument sounding a note, as it advances in its strain, to which, in point of sentiment and sense, its nobler brother has never yet attained; tempting as the opportunity was in the poem to which we have alluded.

'—What awful hand arrests his proud career,
And thrills his inmost heart with mortal fear?
The power, whose noiseless shafts in darkness fly,
Burns in his blood, and glares in either eye.
In this dread hour, when worldly hopes subside,
When throbs the latest pulse of worldly pride,
When the wrapt soul on viewless scenes is bent,—
Say, will that stubborn, conscious mind relent?
No—his last fitful gleam of reason's ray,
Like some foul vapour, shone but to betray.

'That light had sunk in death's unfathomed shade:
Low on the common ground his limbs were laid,
Yet the stern gaze of his unconscious eye
Appalled the sad enthusiasts, weeping by,
And on his parted lip was faintly seen
Some trace of high command, that once had been.
In the first doubtful pause of wild despair
Hope, short-lived, anxious hope, will vainly share.
"He is not dead," they cried, "he cannot die,
Our Prophet here, our Advocate on high!
Wrapt in a holy trance*, her airy flight
His soul hath winged to Allah's throne of light,
Whose secret laws, that scorn the bounds of time,
Form the dread theme of her discourse sublime.
On him shall Azrael's dart descend in vain —
Mohammed must revive, for Jesus rose again!"

'Fount of eternal life! they durst compare
With Thee that breathless form extended there,
Dark Fraud's deserted cell, Pride's mouldering dust,
Ambition's refuse vile, the dregs of lust.
— But Thou wert holy, guileless, poor, betrayed,
Meek as a lamb, that mutely waits the blade,
Pure as the dewy pearl of infant day,
Soft as the tear, that pity wipes away.
Thy hand of power, thy heart of heavenly love,
Displayed on earth the soul that reigns above,
From dark and rayless orbs dispersed the night,
Oped the dull ear to sounds of new delight,
Stretched the shrunk sinew, loosed the speechless tongue,
And waked the vital spark where death's cold damps were hung!
'Twas the sole bliss of thy benignant sway
To heal all wounds, and wipe all tears away;
Nor could thy bitter foes' relentless ire
One angry thought of just revenge inspire.
The pomp of princely power, Ambition's aim,
Thy soul despised, and shunned obstreporous fame.
Thy throne was not of this tumultuous world,
Reared on the wreck of kings, to ruin hurled,
But where Ambition's tearful triumphs cease,
In Heaven's high dome it stands, a throne of peace.'

We have very little room to notice the concluding poem in this collection; a collection on which we have endeavoured to fix attention the longer for this reason, that it is the first attempt in Cambridge to cultivate the graces and glories of our national poetry by public and academical honours. Into a mathematical University, properly so called, we repeat, it is

'* Alluding to Mahomet's pretended night-journey to heaven.'

doubly

doubly desirable that a little of the freshness and elegance of English verse, and of the studies essential to its dignified composition, should be infused: but let the candidates ever remember that *empty heads cannot contain poetry*; and that *every one* of the μεροπων ἀνθρωπων cannot articulate harmonious rhymes. Let those, only, who have gone through an adequate classical probation, dare to lay a finger on the lyre of Granta; for if once the half-informed and the rude in taste, fancying themselves inspired by an irresistible and all-sufficient genius, succeed in sending forth their honour-gaining doggrel from our Universities, no hope will be left for the little remaining purity of language and melody among us.

The poem of *Jerusalem*, by Chauncy Hare Townsend, Esq. Fellow-Commoner of Trinity Hall, ought to be "hailed handsomely;" if Dr. Johnson's canon, as to the due treatment of a noble author, will extend to the gold gowns of Cambridge. We are, in truth, very glad to see any young man, whether adorned by nobility or enriched by fortune, devoting a portion of his time to the judicious cultivation of polite literature; and we think that several passages in *Jerusalem* prove that the Messiah of Pope has not been read in vain by the writer. At the same time, we must censure such carelessness, in a short work, as *nigh* rhyming to *joy*; and such extraordinary comparisons as that in which the author, speaking of the Jews, calls them

> 'More fell than sickness, colder than the grave'!!!

Better, however, still, is such a comparison than the weakness of this couplet:

> 'All, all is fled;—and desolation reigns
> *Without a rival*, o'er thy ravaged plains.'

We shall be happy, in due time, to see another volume of Cambridge Poems.

ART. III. *An Essay on the Origin and Operation of the Dry Rot*; with a View to its Prevention or Cure; to which are annexed, Suggestions on the Cultivation of Forest Trees, and an Abstract of the several Forest Laws, from the Reign of Canute to the present Time. By Robert M'William, Architect and Surveyor. 4to. pp. 420. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Taylor. 1818.

THE disease in timber called the Dry Rot is a destruction of its texture, a decomposition of its parts, usually accompanied by the attachment of parasitic fungi; to the agency of which it has been commonly attributed. After all that has been said and written on the subject, however, it is not yet satisfactorily proved

proved that these formidable fungi are not the *effect* of unsoundness and of incipient decomposition, in the first instance; although they may be admitted as an active cause in hastening the process and aggravating the degree of unsoundness, in the second.

Sir Joseph Banks certainly mistook an effect for a cause, or at least a proximate cause for a remote one, when he attributed the mildew of wheat to the attachment of parasitic fungi; for it is tolerably well ascertained that these fungi affix themselves only to those plants of wheat which are already diseased, while the healthy stems resist their insidious and deadly embrace. Mr. M^c^William, in his very diffuse and elaborate volume, considers fungi as a *proximate* cause of the Dry Rot; and, mildly reproving his precursors in the same inquiry, who, contented with having detected the proximate cause, have not pursued their investigations to discover the origin, (namely, that which produces the fungi themselves,) he tells us that he has endeavoured to supply their deficiency by an attempt to trace the disease to its remotest source. Philosophers of old could only shift the support of the world from the back of the tortoise to the back of the elephant; and to what do the endeavours of Mr. M^c^William on this subject amount? 'Respecting the origin of fungus, I know of no sound argument against its having been created, like other vegetables — at the beginning of all things.'

The *cause* of vitality! No: it is not for mortal hands to uplift the sacred veil which Nature has flung over certain of her mysterious operations. The genius of Darwin, wild and daring as it was, started at this subject; and, when he ventured to speculate on the origin of microscopic beings, he was driven to the incomprehensible doctrine that their vitality is spontaneous! Buffon, Reaumur, Priestley, Ellis, Ingenhousz, and many others, have likewise bewildered themselves in the same inextricable labyrinth. Still, whether the parents of microscopic beings, animal and vegetable, have an universal and invisible existence in the atmosphere, according to Dr. Priestley's theory, — or whether their vitality be spontaneous, according to the hypothesis of Dr. Darwin, — we know the fact that Nature suffers no fit recipient for animal or vegetable life to remain void; that microscopic beings of both kingdoms are always ready to seize on every thing which can afford them subsistence; and that fungi find an appropriate nidus in diseased and decayed vegetable matter, more particularly if it continues in a state of moisture and warmth: whence the wood-work and the walls of vaults are usually covered with mouldiness or mucor.

Ten

Ten or twelve years ago, a Mr. Randall published a small pamphlet on the subject of the Dry Rot; in which he stated his conviction, derived from numerous observations and experiments, that fermentation always takes place in the vegetable matter destroyed, previously to the appearance of the fungus. Mr. M^c William relates the same fact. Now all sap-wood contains a saccharine matter, which, under given degrees of warmth and moisture, has a tendency to ferment; and in timber, whether felled in the spring when the sap is abundant, or more judiciously in the winter before it has risen; whether employed in a green, or in a seasoned state; a greater or smaller quantity of saccharine matter still remains, which, under certain degrees of *continued* warmth and moisture, is disposed to run into fermentation. In the process of putrefaction, carbonic acid-gas and hydrogen-gas are evolved in great abundance; and, as carbon and hydrogen are essential constituents in the pabulum of plants, (whatever may be the *origin* of their vitality,) we have at least some knowlege as to the manner of their support. To deprive these noxious fungi of the means of subsistence is the great desideratum: — to cut off the supplies of an enemy is to destroy him.

After an introductory chapter on Trees and Plants in general, their vegetation and decay, and two subsequent chapters giving an anatomical description and chemical analysis of the Oak and of the Fir, we come to the different kinds and appearances of those fungi especially which attach themselves to buildings. These are, 1. Mucor, or Mould; 2. *Boletus lachrymans;* 3. *Agaricus coriaceus;* 4. *A. domesticus;* and 5. an *Agaricus*, not unlike Mr. Sowerby's *A. bulbosus*, except that the one represented here, and found on fir-timber, has no appearance of root or bulb at the bottom of the stem. These fungi are very easily propagated either by seed or root; the latter, shooting in various directions, will lay hold of timber and penetrate into its fissures or cracks. Mr. M^c William says that 'in a thin substance, such as a board or plank, they will shoot in on the one side in the form of roots and come out on the other as a new plant, distinct from the original; thus resembling the willow and some other plants which will send out roots or branches from either end. This is very common with the fungus.'

In preparing cement for buildings, greater care to exclude vegetable substances should perhaps be taken than we usually deem necessary: since these substances, sometimes brought with the scrapings of public roads, sometimes in the water from stagnant pools, contain myriads of seeds that are susceptible of germination, and only require a favourable temperature to start

start into life; and, when we consider the facility with which fungi are generated, it seems surprising that any building should be exempt from the ravages of the Dry Rot rather than that some should be attacked by it. Fungi frequently appear on the surface of stones and bricks: but that the seeds of them are introduced among the materials of the cement employed, and that they do not in the first instance exist in the stones or bricks themselves, will appear from the following experiment:

'Take two well burnt bricks from the interior of a brick kiln, where no vegetable matter can have come into contact with them since they were thoroughly burnt. To one of these add a portion of distilled water, sufficient thoroughly to moisten the whole brick. Let the other brick be moistened with the juice of any vegetable, such as that of cabbage leaves, either green or boiled; or lay it for a few minutes on the edge of a pond into which the rain washes slime and seeds from trees, &c. that it may receive the stagnant water to moisten it equally with the other brick. Then lay each brick on a pure clean surface; cover each with a glass jar; and place both in a situation a little shaded from the solar rays, where the temperature may be from 45° to 60°; taking care to supply a sufficient quantity of distilled water to each, to keep up the proper degree of moisture. In a very little time, that which was moistened with the vegetable juice, or stagnant water, will be covered with a fine mould; which will be thick or thin, tall or short, in proportion as the water, with which it was first moistened, had been impregnated with vegetable matter: while the other, which was moistened with the pure water, will remain for any length of time without the least appearance of mould.

'Having in this way satisfied myself, that there was no vegetating principle in either of the bricks, I took two pieces of wood from the end of a common deal about a quarter of an inch thick, cut the transverse way of the grain, each about four inches long and two inches broad; moistened both with pure water; and laid one on the middle of each brick. In two days, mould appeared on the upper side of the wood laid on that brick which was moistened by the stagnant water; and in a few days more it began to extend its fibres over the upper side of the brick, as if issuing from the wood: while that on the other brick remained for several weeks without any mould at all; although I have no doubt, but the wood itself would soon have produced mould in this situation.

'The very same effect is produced by stone, provided there be sufficient fissures or crevices in the surface of the stone, to enable it to retain the slime, or muddy and germinating particles, from the vegetable substances with which it may be moistened.'

The fungi which are seen on the surface of a stone and a brick wall may be traced into its joints or fissures; the first appear-

appearance which they present is that of mouldiness: if the situation be moist and warm, this soon becomes broad and corrugated, and next thick and spungy; fungi afterward issuing from the joints. 'The root or branches of this substance,' says Mr. M^c^William, 'I have seen traced through brick-work from three to five feet in thickness, according as the walls have been susceptible of admitting a sufficient portion of heat and air for the support of the vegetation.'

That the Dry Rot is frequently generated *within* the building which it attacks, we cannot doubt, since ships at sea are known to be injured by it. The plugs used for corkings, to secure the beams from shifting on the shelf-pieces, are often made of *lignum vitæ;* and Mr. M^c^W. says that he has lately seen some of these taken out of a vessel affected with the Dry Rot, so completely decomposed as to moulder like a piece of charcoal! The cause of the disease, however, lies sometimes at a very considerable distance from the building; in which case, the detection of it requires no ordinary sagacity. A drain or a cess-pool, impregnated with vegetable matter from the kitchen and yards, frequently generates those gases; which, being conducted to the interior of the building, quicken the seeds of fungi that lay hold of any timber near them. A remarkable instance is mentioned here, in which the mischief arose from a pond of stagnant water that received the drainage from a house at the distance of 320 yards.

'This cause never being suspected, the mansion was repaired no less than four times within eleven years, at an expense of several thousand pounds; but all to little or no purpose. About seven years ago, I had the management of the fourth and last repair. During the time this repair was going on, I was often told, that what I was doing would be of no use, the very same thing having been done before by some one or other of the three preceding architects, who had been employed in succession, and all to no purpose. I found, however, that the beginning of the disease proceeded always from one particular spot: and that very spot had been often completely saturated with various nostrums, without any good effect. Hence I determined on having the drain taken up, and altered. To this my employer strongly objected; and jeered the ridiculous notion, as he called it, that a pond at such a distance could have any effect on his house. At length he gave his reluctant consent; the drain was taken up, and altered; the work was completed; and the whole premises now stand sound and perfect, without the least appearance of the disease, although the repairs have been finished above six years. Indeed I am convinced, that the most mysterious cases of this disease in houses are occasioned in general by improper drainage, although the cause may not be so distant as in this instance.'

Warmth,

Warmth, moisture, and air, are necessary to the germination and support of fungi: but a redundancy of any of the three, according to the present author, will destroy the equilibrium on which their action depends, and the Dry Rot will cease till that is restored, when the disease resumes its activity. On the side of an oaken tenon or scarf, fungi have been known to remain for ages, without the least injury to the timber while it was kept dry: but they immediately resumed the work of destruction when it was furnished with moisture.

Although the Dry Rot is a decomposition of timber, *usually* accompanied with fungi, it would appear that the latter are not absolutely necessary for the destruction of its texture; and the Dry Rot is sometimes committing its ravages without the appearance of any vegetable substance on the surface of the timber, or of moisture in any part of it. A larger portion of moisture and air is requisite for the support of fungi than for the mere purpose of decomposition; so that the joists in the basement-story, and the floor itself, are often entirely rotten without the least production of fungi. Different kinds of wood produce different fungi, which arrive at maturity sooner on some sorts of timber than on others; and their different appearances are indicative of different stages of corruption. For illustrations of this curious subject, we must refer to the volume itself, chap. ix.

We are now come to that part which treats concerning the prevention and cure of this fatal disease: but it is obvious, from what has been said, that the causes are so combined and complicated as to make the counteraction of them in particular cases difficult, and to render utterly nugatory the application of any specific nostrum. General principles alone can be adopted, and the operation of them must be regulated by the peculiar circumstances of each case.

Heat, moisture, and air, being necessary to produce and perpetuate the disease, are the subjects of Mr. M^c William's consideration with reference to its prevention and cure. When he tells us that a redundancy of any of these agents will destroy or suspend the activity of the fungi, he speaks vaguely; because, although the combination of the three may be necessary in certain proportions, we do not imagine that those proportions can with any accuracy be defined, and a redundancy must have reference to some standard. The range of temperature, for example, within the limits of which fungi will vegetate, is prodigious. The Dry Rot will proceed rapidly at 80 degrees, which is evident from the circumstance of ships returning from tropical climates almost covered with

fungi; at 90°, 100°, 110°, its progress becomes more and more slow; and at 120° it will in general be arrested: but Mr. M^c William thinks that no degree of heat *short of combustion* will destroy, though it may suspend, its corrupting influence. In descending the scale of the thermometer, it is found that the Dry Rot proceeds very fast at 50°, more slowly at 40°, and is only suspended at 32°: for no degree of cold with which we are acquainted will destroy the corrupting principle, and prevent its return after the temperature has been raised to 45° or 50°. It is obvious, therefore, that the application of mere local and artificial heat can be of very little or no avail.

The great remedy or preventive, on which Mr. M^c W. principally relies, is, in accordance with the general theory, the free circulation of atmospheric air; and the application of heat may be useful as an auxiliary in promoting such a circulation.

'In the application of air as a preventive against the dry rot, nothing more is necessary, than that there be a free circulation, through all the parts of the edifice, of air as pure as the situation of the place will permit; taking care, that as little moisture as possible be admitted; and that there be no lodgment for it, such as wells, cellars, or vaults, which the current of air cannot reach. To ensure this as much as possible, some of the apertures for the admission of air should be as low as the underside of the ground floor, or pavement, to prevent any stagnation in the lower parts of the building; for stagnant air and carbonic acid gas are heavier than common air, and will lie at the bottom of a cellar or vault, sometimes when there is a considerable current of air in the upper part. But introducing the stream of pure air at the bottom will dislodge these gaseous vapours, and set them in motion: and in proportion as the air admitted is more pure, will it absorb and hold in solution these more dense particles, and carry them off in the current. While the air thus impregnated is driven off by fresh air arising in the same manner, and the vapour is continually carried away, by keeping the apartments clear and dry we shall prevent the dry rot, not only in the basement, but in all parts of the building, to which the air is admitted. If there be fire in the apartment, the motion of the air will be thereby increased; and this will occasion its being renewed oftener, and consequently it will carry off the humid vapour more readily: yet raising the temperature very high by such means is rather injurious than otherwise. If the walls be properly built and kept dry, so that the ends of the timbers, that must necessarily rest on them, be not exposed to any constant or periodical supply of moisture; if the whole building, particularly the basement, be kept dry by proper drainage; and if the air be allowed to circulate between the joists and through the floors, in a moderate degree; it is not necessary, that a great deal of air should be admitted, so as to become disagreeable

agreeable to the inhabitants: and the purer the air, the smaller portion is sufficient.

'But it must be understood, that the timber is properly seasoned before it is used: and, after it is used in the building, has been allowed sufficient time to dry. For, although the timber may be sufficiently seasoned, there is always a great quantity of water used for the mortar, and for other purposes in erecting a building; which, as it evaporates from the walls, and lathed and plastered partitions, will be absorbed by the timber, and render it moist afresh. Here it is evident, that there ought to be a larger portion of air admitted for a considerable length of time, to carry off this redundancy of moisture; but applying artificial heat in this case is very injudicious, because, before any artificial heat can be applied, the building must be considerably closed, though not fully so. Artificially raising the temperature may in some measure heat the walls, and the outside of the various timbers, and expel the moisture; but the air having only a partial draught or circulation, though a portion of the moisture may be carried away, far the greater part will be retained: and agreeably to what has been said about cold walls condensing vapour when the temperature is lowered, the moisture will be absorbed principally by the wood work of the apartment where the heat has been; so that, instead of the moisture being carried off, it will be driven deeper into the middle of the timber, while the outside may appear dry. This heat may likewise carry off the moisture from the wall for an inch or two, which may also appear dry; and if the building be finished immediately, and the air excluded to that degree, which is absolutely necessary to render the apartments at all habitable, then it is evident, that the whole of the walls and the timber will remain loaded with moisture, except the surface, which has been scorched by the artificial heat. Hence in a very little time all will become moist and damp; the paper and painting stained; and, for want of sufficient air to carry off the vapour, the whole building will be rendered uncomfortable. This is generally the case, where works of magnitude are carried up and completed very rapidly, whether artificial heat be used or not: although more so if it be. What can be expected in such a case, but a rapid destruction of the building by what is called the dry rot? I have supposed, that this timber was once dry, and well seasoned; therefore it may be called only water wet, as the natural juices of the timber were disposed of before it was placed in the building; and nothing more was necessary, than to have allowed such a building to remain in carcase for a few months longer. This is very different from unseasoned timber.'

Even atmospheric air itself, however, requires some discretion in its application; for, if in its passage through any part of a building which is damp and already affected, it should become impregnated with the noxious gases before mentioned, and be charged with any of the volatile seeds of fungi, it may bear destruction and not healing on its wings.

The necessity, therefore, is obvious for removing, *in limine*, the infected materials; and, as these are very often "invisible or dimly seen," concealing themselves in minute interstices, a penetrating and accustomed eye is wanted for their detection.

For the purpose of securing the outer walls of buildings from that permanent moisture which is so dangerous, it is suggested that open spaces might be left, at intervals of a few feet, through the whole wall, from top to bottom. Thick and close walls are constructed for strength: but it is well observed, that the strength of an edifice can never exceed that of its weakest parts, and consequently that partial strength may produce general weakness. Such walls, long remaining at a lower temperature than that of the atmosphere, are kept moist by condensing the air: every brick conducts the moisture which it has absorbed as far into the wall as that brick goes; the mortar conducts it to another brick; and so on till the inside of the wall is often retained in a state of constant moisture. When walls, from their situation and aspect, must be exposed to a great degree of moisture or cold, Mr. M'W. has accordingly built them half a brick thicker than the support of the mere perpendicular pressure required, and left the thickness of that half brick *hollow* within the wall; laying the bricks so that every other header may form a tie, and every stretcher on the outside leave the hollow space in the wall. The moisture which is absorbed then finds its way to the inside of the brick or stone as before: but, as there is no conductor, it is intercepted; and, not being able to proceed farther, it either falls down the wall or is evaporated by the wind from the outside. Many of those massy walls that were built by the antients as boundaries were crusts, or shells, with interstices left for the circulation of air: the great Chinese wall, and the walls of Pekin, are so constructed; and, though such enormous edifices as these are not required in modern times, the principle may be reduced to any scale, and adopted with advantage.

It often happens that an entire story of a house, containing kitchen, cellars, and other offices, are under ground: in this case the walls are damp; and those apartments which require the freest current of air obtain the least. If frequent fires are made, the predisposing causes of Dry Rot are put into double activity: the air of the room is decomposed, its oxygen is consumed, and its nitrogen, being specifically lighter, flies up the chimney; while the carbon both of the fuel and of the air, being heavier than the latter, falls down, and gets to the floors and joists. The fresh air, which finds its way from the upper apartments and supplies the vacuum occasioned by con-

sumption, pressing straight towards the fire, will leave the moist and damp air in the corners of the room, at the foot of the walls, and under the floor; and, assisted by warmth, frequent change of temperature, and a large supply of carbonic acid-gas from the combustion, it nourishes the fungus. Hence, according to the author, basement-floors are destroyed much sooner in apartments which have fires than in those which have none. To remedy this evil, it is proposed to pass flues under the floors through the different apartments; carrying the mouths of them out at such places as may freely supply them with pure air; and bringing the other ends into one spot near the hearth, so that they may be carried up behind the grate, and thence into a sort of chimney-flue made in the wall, which may pass out at the top or any other part of the building. The construction of this flue is a matter of considerable nicety, for which we must refer to the volume: the principle of its operation, however, (and it may be applied to ships as well as houses,) is that the air behind the grate becomes rarified by the heat, and ascends up the chimney, while a volume of denser air from below presses in to fill up the space; this in its turn, becoming rarified, likewise ascends, and a current is produced which brings a stream of pure air through the flue under the floor.

Water is likewise a powerful agent in preventing and remedying the ravages of the rot; and many instances have been recorded that prove the antiseptic properties of water acting on wood entirely submersed in it. The piles driven into the Thames by Julius Cæsar were undecayed a few years ago; and those on which London Bridge is built have been immersed more than 600 years, and are yet uninjured; while vast quantities of timber, which may have lain buried for centuries, have been found in the bogs and peat-mosses of England, Ireland, Scotland, Holland, France, &c., quite sound, and some of it fit for the purposes of building. When water is applied as a substitute for air in cellars, vaults, &c., care must be taken that it does not stagnate, but flow regularly through the drains; in which case it will carry off with it much of the carbonic acid-gas which is so essential a pabulum to fungi.

It is scarcely necessary to say that timber, taken down in the spring when in a succulent state, or used before it has been properly seasoned, is peculiarly subject to the Dry Rot; and yet Parliament, which is rather too fond of interfering in private concerns, and rarely so interferes without doing mischief, prohibited, in the first year of James I., every person from cutting oak-timber *except in the barking season*, under a severe

severe penalty! For the sake of the fleece, they sacrificed the carcase! If we strip off the bark in the spring of the year, and let the trees stand till the following winter, having cut a ring an inch deep through the alburnum, near the roots; then the sap and saccharine mucilage already in the tree in the spring will be expended during the summer in buds and leaves, while the ring through the alburnum will intercept any fresh supply from the roots. In whatever period of the year trees are felled, however, some portion of matter will yet remain not converted into woody fibre, which it is of importance to expel: but those that are cut down in the winter, particularly if the supply of sap has been intercepted in the summer, will give much less trouble in seasoning than others which have been felled at an improper time.

Mere desiccation is insufficient; for, although the *succus communis*, the aqueous particles, may be driven off, much saline, saccharine, and other matter remains which is soluble in water, and thus at once points out the remedy. When timber is felled, the sooner it is sawn into squares or planks the better; let these be then immersed in a pond of tolerably clear and soft water, which will extract their juices from the capillary tubes of the timber, and exhibit the activity of its agency by becoming discoloured in a few days. When they have remained some months in water, they should be piled up, protected from sun and rain, and exposed to wind; the butt ends of the timber being uppermost. It is a custom with the ship-builders in the royal arsenal at Genoa to steep their timber for about three years in fresh water, before they use it; and the Spaniards also soak it; as do the Swedes and Norwegians.

The charring of timber is of very antient use, and against external infection is an admirable preservative: but, when the principles of decomposition are *within*, it is of very little advantage in resisting them. Paint, when the timber is properly seasoned and dry, is likewise very beneficial; and the following hints on this subject may be useful:

'The oil first used for this purpose should be such as has an affinity with the essential oil of the species of timber to which it is applied. For fir-timber, the best is oil of turpentine, with a small portion of linseed oil and bees' wax, and some metallic oxyd, particularly that of lead. The first coat ought to consist principally of the oils, in order that they may penetrate into the cavities of the timber, and fill them up. Thus they will form a better hold for the succeeding coats, which should have a greater proportion of the metallic oxyd, and a proportion of charcoal powdered and properly mixed with any of the drying oils. This will form a solid close body: and, if properly executed, will protect the

timber from external contamination for a considerable length of time: as the oil, &c. will give the charcoal-powder a considerable degree of elasticity, and prevent its cracking by the expansion of the wood when damp. For oak-timber, the first coat should be principally linseed oil and oxyd of iron, copper, or zinc. The second should have the addition of bees' wax and litharge; and the following coat should have powdered charcoal, with any other of the drying oils. This I have often known to preserve wood externally, not only from the dry rot, fungus, &c., but likewise from the action and re-action of air and moisture. Timber, however, that is exposed to the alternate action of the respective agents of decomposition, will be effected by internal decay in spite of all external protection. And if the timber be not seasoned and dry in the middle, painting or varnishing will in many cases accelerate the decay; as was the case with the gun-carriages made in England of unseasoned timber, painted, and sent out to Nova Scotia, in the year 1799. Though the painting preserved the outside crust apparently sound, yet in a few months after they were placed in the fort, they crumbled to pieces by internal decay. Numberless similar instances might be mentioned, from which the inefficacy of external antidotes is apparent; but, if thoroughly dry, good painting is a very great protection for all sorts of timber.'

The impregnation of timber with oleaginous or resinous matter may be deemed a security against the Dry Rot. When it has been well seasoned, if the capillary vessels, from which the aqueous, saccharine, and other matter has been expelled, are filled up with substances insoluble in water, and not readily agitated by the change of temperature, timber will resist the great agents of decomposition, air and moisture. The Americans impregnate their masts by hollowing out the tops in the form of cups, and pouring oil into them, which soon finds its way to the interior; and many similar experiments have been tried in our own dock-yards. The various sorts of timber will absorb that oil the most freely which has the greatest affinity to their native juices. Linseed-oil is well calculated for most sorts; it is not easily soluble in water; and it penetrates with great facility into the vesicular cavities of the wood, where it concretes into solid masses, and unites so closely as to form a substance in many instances, says Mr. MacWilliam, not distinguishable from the timber itself. Salts, minerals, and metallic oxyds have also been applied as antidotes against the Dry Rot: but with respect to common salt, its power of attracting moisture from the atmosphere must more than counterbalance any advantages that it may possess; and the dampness which it would occasion in our houses would be intolerable. Various methods of applying iron as a preservative have been adopted, and they are simple and generally successful.

successful. The oxyd of iron is destructive of vegetation. If the disease originates in the walls, we should brush away the fungus, clear out the joints of the brick-work, point them again with common blue mortar, made of lime with the oxyd of iron, and wash the whole surface with a saturated solution of sulphat of iron (green vitriol); iron-filings, however, are soluble in water with almost any of the acids; and this mixture will produce an oxyd answering the same purpose.

Mr. M^c^William observes that different sorts of timber absorb some oils with more reluctance than they absorb others, which latter are thence said to have a greater affinity for them: thus turpentine or resinous matter is inapplicable to oak; and oil combined with metallic oxyd is not well adapted to fir. All those timbers, likewise, which contain the astringent principle, tannin and gallic acid, will be readily impregnated with a solution of iron; while those which do not, having no affinity to the metal, absorb it only because it is moisture, and refuse it if they are previously saturated with water. On the contrary, if we apply a solution of iron to oak-timber already saturated with water, it will still absorb the solution, not because it is moisture but because it has an affinity with the metal itself. If the solution, however, be applied to timber, the native juices of which have no such affinity with the metal, and if it be absorbed only because the timber is dry, the water will filter through the woody fibres to the centre, while the particles of metal will be intercepted, and a super-oxydation succeed on the surface, assuming the appearance of rust; and a double injury will follow. A solution of iron may in all cases be used with the greatest advantage in the form of a wash to destroy the roots and seeds of fungi; and those trees which will absorb it, Oak, Elm, Spanish and Horse Chesnut, Ash, Birch, Poplar, Larch, Willow, and others, may thus be effectually armed against the Dry Rot. Several instances are here enumerated of the entire conversion of some woods, oak particularly, into a solid substance of iron ore. Wherever oak-timber is found in bogs, and iron occurs near, it invariably attracts a portion of the metal; and, uniting with the acid of the timber, it becomes black: in Staffordshire, it is usually found as black and hard as ebony, and, being under ground, it is prevented from superoxydation. Where this danger exists, oil or some grease must be used to prevent corrosion.

'When the solution of this metal is to be used, care should be taken to apply it as soon as the iron is dissolved, while it has a black appearance; for by this means the timber will have an opportunity of saturating the gallic acid with iron, without so much

oxygen. While it retains the black colour, the solution has 27 parts of oxygen to 73 parts of iron: but by being exposed to the atmospheric air for any length of time, it becomes fully oxygenated, assumes a reddish rusty colour, and then it contains 48 parts of oxygen to 52 parts of metal. When the timber of a house or ship is thus impregnated with iron, if it be rubbed over with oil and any of the alkaline salts mixed together, or with common soap, it will become very hard, and almost impenetrable. A compound of hog's lard, camphor, and lead, will have nearly the same effect. Any other substance, that will prevent the iron from being over oxydized, will be as effectual. For it is well known, that iron is in itself harmless, but becomes corrosive, when combined with a very large portion of oxygen: therefore to saturate with iron, and at the same time to prevent its being superoxydized, is all the little difficulty that is here to be encountered.'

Mr. M^cWilliam has devoted a solitary chapter to the ravages committed on timber by worms; but a great portion of curious matter on the nature and habits of these destructive insects is to be found in the volumes on Entomology by Messrs. Kirby and Spence. It often happens that a piece of timber is completely destroyed in the inside, with scarcely any indication of decay without; so that the evil is not suspected till it has become too deeply seated to be removed by any external application. The essential oil of turpentine, lime-water, and a strong decoction of garlic in common water, are effective to the extent in which they are absorbed; but the great difficulty is *access to the enemy*. Those forest-trees which are hard, or have bitter juices, are least liable to these insects: they scarcely ever touch box or ebony; and it is asserted that, in addition to its other admirable properties, the larch has never been known to be affected by the larvæ of insects.

Having taken this extensive analytical view of the body of the work, we can devote but little room to the Appendix; which is copious, and contains much miscellaneous matter, not relating to the dissertation itself but to the general state of the forests in the United Empire. Mr. M^cWilliam strenuously recommends an extension of planting, and offers a variety of valuable suggestions on the cultivation of timber. He presents us with a number of calculations, and some documents, to prove that the quantity of our domestic timber is diminished, and the demand for it increased; adding, and perhaps truly, that agriculture itself has not been benefited by disforesting large tracts of land, because, in consequence of the loss of these very woods, many districts are now exposed and bleak, and rendered barren by the exposure, which were once cultivated under the shelter of their antient woods. If those mountain-

ous districts be planted on which corn will not pay for culture; a capital will thus be created without any loss of rent; and the immediate expence is little, while the future remuneration will be great. It is unnecessary to dissuade proprietors from planting good arable land: but many dreary and unprofitable wastes, many naked hills and unwholesome bogs, might advantageously be converted into wood-land; and the utmost possible encouragement is here given, for Mr. M'W. contends that wood may be cultivated in every soil and climate, from the sea-beach to the mountain-top, from the equator almost to the pole. The adaptation of trees to soil and situation appears to be the principal object. He remarks that those which prosper best on steril soil have generally firm, hard, but slender roots; while those which require more fertile soil have their roots usually more thick, plump, and, many of them, spungy and soft. 'Those which require least or most shelter may be generally known at once by the size of their leaves and the flexibility of their footstalks, for trees in general require shade and shelter in proportion to the size of their leaves: the broader the leaf, the more protection is necessary.'

We cannot take leave of this writer without thanking him for the instruction as well as the amusement which he has afforded us. An enthusiast himself, his zeal to inspire others with the same enthusiasm for planting is meritorious: every personal and patriotic feeling is invoked — private interest and public benefit — to stimulate proprietors of land to the good work; and, although the present volume does not profess to give minute and detailed instructions for planting, we should certainly recommend it to attention not only from builders with reference to the disease of the Dry Rot, but from those gentlemen, likewise, who are preparing to furnish the materials for building, by redeeming the sterility of their wastes and clothing their hills with timber.

ART. IV. Mr. Stewart's *Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 272.]

FROM the observations which have already been made, we think that the reader will sufficiently perceive with what modification we are to admit the strictures of Mr. Stewart on the doctrines of Dr. Beddoes and Professor Leslie, with respect to the nature of demonstrative evidence. The error of Dr. Beddoes certainly consisted in the view which he took

not of the basis but the superstructure of geometrical reasoning. Nothing can well be more evident than the principle assumed by this author, that our notions of extension and figure are derived from the senses: but it does not therefore follow that it is desirable to change our modes of investigation and instruction on these subjects, and adopt the experimental method which he recommends. We are particularly surprized, however, that, in the whole of this section, Mr. Stewart has not once adverted to the leading and characteristic property of the objects of mathematical investigation, that they are all susceptible of *measurement*: though, perhaps, such a remark would have looked too much like an appeal to fact and observation. He does, indeed, take a slight notice afterward, in passing, of this circumstance, when speaking of the application of theoretical conclusions to practice; yet it is of very considerable importance to attend to it, in order to attain correct ideas of the actual process of the mind in the theoretical investigations themselves, more especially when the algebraical modes of analysis are employed.

The next chapter is entirely occupied with an elaborate examination of the Aristotelian logic; the principal object of which is to shew that the syllogistic theory is utterly futile and absurd. This will be allowed to be a sufficiently bold *thesis*; yet it does not appear to us that much has been added by the author to the objections which had previously been advanced by Mr. Locke and Dr. Campbell, and, as we conceive, very satisfactorily refuted by various eminent writers. Mr. Stewart, however, thinks 'it was not without good reason that Dr. Campbell hazarded the epigrammatic but unanswerable remark, that there is always some radical defect in a syllogism which is not chargeable with that species of sophism known among logicians by the name of *petitio principii*, or a begging of the question.' Now we cannot refrain from saying that Dr. C. might have spared this *unanswerable* remark. On farther reflection, he might have found, as we conceive that every one else will find who understands the real nature and object of the syllogism, that his observation would have been equally correct and still more epigrammatic, though not so well adapted to his purpose of crying down the syllogistic theory, if he had proceeded to affirm that the syllogism derives its conclusiveness from this same *petitio principii*. In every real argument, the labour is to establish not the truth of the conclusion, but the truth of the premises, from which that of the conclusion follows of course, as being necessarily involved in them: so that the syllogism may properly be considered as merely the *statement* of an argument, not the argument

argument itself. In the statement, the truth of the premises is assumed, and the conclusion appears to be actually contained in them; and the use of this artificial arrangement is to make it appear that, *if* the premises be admitted, the conclusion must be admitted likewise. The business, then, is to prove the premises. This position may be illustrated by a well known example. Cicero is defending Milo, and the argument of his defence may be thus concisely stated:—A man is justified in killing another who lies in wait to murder him: Clodius lay in wait to kill Milo; therefore Milo was justified in killing Clodius. This is a regular syllogism; and it cannot be doubted that the conclusion is actually contained in the premises:—so that, if this were the argument itself, and not merely the statement of the argument, it would involve the *petitio principii* here laid to its charge:—but the whole of Cicero's labour in this celebrated oration is to prove the truth of the premises; and, when this is once made out, his object is accomplished. We apprehend that this view of the true application of the syllogism may be of considerable use in rightly estimating some of the plausible, but fallacious, objections which are brought against it by the present and other writers.

Mr. Stewart's first objection to the syllogistic theory is founded on the demonstrations by which the validity of the various technical rules of mood and figure is established. 'These demonstrations,' he says, 'proceed on the obviously false supposition of its being possible to add to the force of demonstrative evidence.' Nothing, certainly, can be more completely erroneous than this supposition: but we are at a loss to comprehend in what way it is involved in the demonstrations in question. To suppose that it is would be to ascribe an absurdity to their author too glaring to be admitted, for these demonstrations themselves are nothing more than a series of syllogisms. The fact is, that this objection proceeds on an entire misconception of the real nature and object of the syllogism: which object is not to furnish a new instrument of reasoning, or to add any thing to the force of demonstrative evidence: but to develop those principles of the human understanding on which all accurate reasoning must ever proceed; and to present a clear and exact statement, in words at length, of the process which is tacitly, but really, performed by the mind in the conduct of an argument. The syllogism, therefore, is justly represented not as an invention but as a *discovery*; being nothing more than the unfolding of those principles on which all correct reasoning, from the creation of the world, must have been founded;

which

which is rendered evident by the undeniable fact that every conclusive argument admits of being stated in the syllogistic form.

Mr. Stewart's objections to the syllogistic theory seem, in many instances, to proceed on a conception of its nature and intention that is perfectly erroneous, and for the last two hundred years at least has been universally exploded; namely, that it was the object of the syllogism to assist in the *discovery* of truth.

'For my own part,' says he, (p. 274.) 'I cannot help being of opinion with Lord Monboddo (who certainly was not wanting in a due respect for the authority of Aristotle) that the syllogistic theory would have accorded much better with the doctrine of Plato, concerning *general ideas*, than with that held on the same subject by the founder of the Peripatetic school. To maintain that in all demonstration we argue from generals to particulars, and at the same time to assert that the necessary progress of our knowledge is from particulars to generals by a gradual induction from the informations of sense, do not appear to an ordinary understanding to be very congruous parts of the same system.'

Nor would they be so, if demonstration were the method by which we *discovered* truth: — but nothing can be more evident than that every truly synthetic demonstration implies that the conclusion has been previously ascertained in the way of analysis. By analysis, we proceed from particulars to generals, by a gradual induction from the informations of sense, or from whatever other source we derive the materials of our knowlege. Where is the wonder, then, that in demonstration we should reverse the process, and advance from generals to particulars?

Another objection to this whole theory we shall state in Mr. Stewart's words, and then leave it to its own merits:

'The fundamental idea on which this philosopher (Aristotle) evidently proceeded, and in which he has been too implicitly followed by many even of those who have rejected his syllogistic theory, takes for granted that the discovery of truth chiefly depends on the reasoning faculty, and that it is the comparative strength of this faculty which constitutes the intellectual superiority of one man above another. The similarity between the words *reason* and *reasoning*, of which I formerly took notice, and the confusion which it has occasioned in their appropriate meanings, has contributed powerfully to encourage and to perpetuate this unfortunate mistake. If I do not greatly deceive myself, it will be found on an accurate examination of the subject, that of the different elements which enter into the composition of *reason*, in the most enlarged acceptation of that word, the power of carrying on long processes of *reasoning* or deduction is in point of importance one of the least.' —

'Among

'Among the various pursuits now followed by men liberally educated, there is none certainly which affords such scope to the reasoning faculty as the science and profession of law; and accordingly it has been observed by Mr. Burke, "That they do more to *quicken and invigorate the understanding*, than all the other kinds of learning put together." The same author however adds, "That they are not apt, except in persons very happily born, to open and to liberalize the mind exactly in the same proportion." Nor is this surprising; for the ultimate standards of right and wrong, to which they recognize the competency of an appeal, being conventional rules and human authorities, no field is opened to that spirit of free inquiry which it is the boast of philosophy to cultivate.'—

'The habits of a controversial writer are in some respects analogous to those of a lawyer; and their effects on the intellectual powers, when engaged in the investigation of truth, are extremely similar. They confine the attention to one particular view of the question, and instead of training the understanding to combine together the various circumstances which seem to favour opposite conclusions, so as to limit each other, and to guard the judgment against either extreme; they are apt, by presenting the subject sometimes wholly on the one side, and sometimes wholly on the other, to render the disputant the sceptical dupe of his own ingenuity. Such seems to have been nearly the case with the redoubtable Chillingworth; a person to whose native candour the most honourable testimony has been borne by the most eminent of his contemporaries; and whose argumentative powers have almost become matter of proverbial remark. Dr. Reid has pronounced him "the best reasoner, as well as the acutest logician of his age;" and Locke himself has said, "If you would have your son to reason well, let him read Chillingworth." To what consequences these rare endowments and attainments led, we may learn from Lord Clarendon.

'"Mr. Chillingworth had spent all his younger time in disputations; and had arrived at so great a mastery that he was inferior to no man in those skirmishes; but he had, with his notable perfection in this exercise, contracted such an irresolution and habit of doubting, that by degrees he grew confident of nothing. Neither the books of his adversaries, nor any of their persons, though he was acquainted with the best of both, had ever made great impression on him; all his doubts grew out of himself, when he assisted his scruples with all the strength of his own reason, and was then too hard for himself; but finding as little quiet and repose in those victories, he quickly recovered, by a new appeal to his own judgment; so that in truth, he was, in all his sallies and retreats, his own convert."

'The foregoing observations, if well founded, conclude strongly, not merely against the *form* of the school-logic, but against the importance of the *end* to which it is directed. Locke and many others have already sufficiently shewn, how inadequate the syllogistic theory is to its avowed purpose; but few seem to be sufficiently aware how

how very little this purpose, if it were attained, would advance us in the knowledge of those truths which are the most interesting to human happiness.' (P. 289—295.)

On the whole, notwithstanding the labour which has evidently been bestowed on this chapter, we repeat that the author does not appear to us to have added much that is new or important to the observations of Locke and Campbell, which have already been satisfactorily refuted by various able writers. We are particularly surprized, however, that Mr. Stewart, whose reading is so general and diversified, and who has made frequent reference to many inferior authors, has entirely neglected to notice such a work as Kirwan's Logic; in which most of the objections that had then been brought against the syllogistic theory are very satisfactorily answered; and which, from the high celebrity of the writer and the coincidence in some respects of his views with those of Mr. Stewart himself, might naturally have been expected to attract his particular attention.

Chapter IV., which treats of the method of inquiry pointed out in the experimental or inductive logic, occupies the remainder of the volume, and, in our estimation, constitutes beyond comparison the most valuable portion of it. Although it contains some things on which we shall feel it to be our duty to animadvert, yet by much the greater part of this disquisition has our unqualified praise. It exhibits a great variety of ingenious and profound speculations on the principle of the inductive method in general, as well as many observations which well deserve to be carefully borne in mind in directing its practical application. We may add, too, that it presents us with more numerous and happy specimens than the former volume of the work furnished, of that taste and eloquence for which Mr. Stewart is so justly distinguished above almost all the philosophical writers of the present day.

After some strictures on the system of philosophizing adopted by the antients as proceeding on fanciful analogies and verbal subtleties, rather than on a careful examination of facts, Mr. S. observes that the ultimate object of the philosopher is precisely the same with that which every man of plain understanding has in view, when he remarks the events that fall under his notice, in order to obtain rules for the regulation of his conduct; differing from it not in kind but in degree. The field in which his researches are exercised is more various and extensive, and the facts to be investigated are more recondite; requiring the use of observation and experiment, by the employment of which accordingly the studies of the philosopher are distinguished from the comparatively vague

vague experience of the multitude. By means of these he is enabled first to resolve particular facts into others more simple and comprehensive, and secondly to apply these general facts (or, as they are usually called, *laws of nature*) to a synthetic explanation of particular phænomena. These two processes of the mind, with that judicious employment of observation and experiment which they pre-suppose, exhaust the whole business of philosophical investigation; and the great object of the rules of philosophizing is to shew in what manner they ought to be conducted. The inductive method, thus delineated, differs essentially from the induction of Aristotle, which he himself describes as an inference drawn from *all* the particulars which it comprehends; a species of induction proceeding by the mere enumeration of individual instances, which Bacon characterizes as a puerile employment of the mind, that can lead to no certain conclusions.

In the next section of this chapter, Mr. S. considers the use of the words *analysis* and *synthesis* in the language of modern philosophy: introducing the discussion by an ingenious and highly interesting illustration of the analysis and synthesis of the Greek geometricians; which we recommend to all who wish to obtain accurate notions on the subject, as containing the most correct and luminous account of it that we remember to have seen. These observations are brought forwards for the purpose of shewing that the terms in question, in their application to the inquiries of modern philosophers, have suffered a sort of *inversion* of their original signification. In some cases, indeed, it appears evident that the natural philosopher uses the word *analysis* where the Greek geometer would have employed the word *synthesis*. When we attempt from known phænomena to establish the truth of any theory, we are said to proceed analytically: but the analogy of antient geometry would apply this word to a process directly the reverse, which, assuming the system as true, should reason from it to the known phænomena; after which, if the process could be so reversed as to prove that this system and this system alone is consistent with these facts, it would bear some analogy to a geometrical synthesis. A want of attention to this circumstance, which we apprehend has never before been so clearly pointed out, seems to have led several very eminent writers, particularly Condillac and even Sir Isaac Newton, into vague and inconclusive reasoning.

'These remarks,' says Mr. Stewart, 'are introduced here not with the most distant view to any alteration in our established language, (which in the present instance appears to me not only unexceptionable, but very happily significant of its true logical import,)

import,) but merely to illustrate the occasional influence of words over the most powerful understandings, and the vagueness of the reasonings into which they may insensibly be betrayed by a careless employment of indefinite and ambiguous terms.'

The succeeding section exhibits the singular spectacle of Professor Stewart defending Hartley against the attacks of Dr. Reid. It will readily be believed that such a portentous coalition can scarcely occur on any *great* question; yet it is a question of some interest, and affords the author the opportunity of making several just and important remarks; viz. the extent to which hypothetical reasoning may be admitted in philosophical speculations. It is observed, we think, very justly, that the line which separates hypothesis from experience is not easily traced; since every hypothesis proceeds on analogies more or less intimate and exact, and experience and analogy evidently run into each other by imperceptible gradations:

'Nor is the utility of hypothetical theories confined to those cases in which they have been confirmed by subsequent researches; it may be equally great where they have completely disappointed the expectations of their authors. Nothing, I think, can be juster than Hartley's remark, that any hypothesis which possesses a sufficient degree of plausibility to account for a number of facts helps us to digest these facts in proper order, to bring new ones to light, and to make *experimenta crucis* for the sake of future inquirers. Indeed it has probably been in this way that most discoveries have been made, for although a knowledge of facts must be prior to the formation of a legitimate theory, yet a hypothetical theory is generally the best guide to the knowledge of connected and of useful facts.

'The first conception of a hypothetical theory, it must always be remembered, (if the theory possesses any plausibility whatever,) pre-supposes a general acquaintance with the phænomena which it aims to account for; and it is by reasoning synthetically from the hypothesis, and comparing the deductions with observation and experiment, that the cautious inquirer is gradually led, either to correct it in such a manner as to reconcile it with facts, or finally to abandon it as an unfounded conjecture. Even in this latter case, an approach is made to the truth in the way of *exclusion*; while at the same time an accession is gained to that class of associated and kindred phænomena, which it is his object to trace to their parent stock.' (P. 429.)

Dr. Hartley, however, goes farther than this, in his defence of hypothetical reasoning; asserting that, if an hypothesis be sufficient to account for *all* the phænomena in question, no other proof of its truth is necessary. "Thus," says he, "we admit the key of a cypher to be a true one, when it explains the cypher completely; and the decypherer judges himself to approach

approach to the true key, in proportion as he advances in the explanation of the cypher; and this without any direct evidence at all." To this remark Mr. Stewart objects 'that there are few if any physical hypotheses which afford the *only* way of explaining the phænomena to which they are applied; and therefore, admitting them to be perfectly consistent with all the known facts, they leave us in the same state of uncertainty in which the decypherer would find himself, if he should discover a variety of keys to the same cypher.' The observation on which this objection is founded, though just, is merely relative to our imperfect acquaintance with nature. Though it may be true that, in many cases, the phænomena admit of being explained on a variety of different hypotheses, yet this is only because we are not thoroughly informed of the true state of the case. Nothing, we apprehend, can be more certain than that there is in point of fact but one theory which is really applicable to all the phænomena; and the reason which makes it appear otherwise to us is that those facts, which are decisive in favour of one hypothesis in preference to all others, or which serve as *experimenta crucis* in the inquiry, have not as yet come to our knowlege. The case of the decypherer in this respect seems exactly parallel. For a while, there may probably be two or more conjectures as to the import of various characters, which seem equally probable; and as long as his acquaintance with the phænomena continues imperfect, — that is, until he has met with those facts which are decidedly inconsistent with all his hypotheses except one, — he may be said to have discovered a variety of keys to the same cypher, in the same sense in which the natural philosopher has discovered a variety of theories equally applicable to the same set of phænomena. We can see no force, therefore, in this objection.

'In these strictures upon Hartley,' Mr. Stewart observes in continuation, 'I have endeavoured to do as much justice as possible to his general argument by keeping entirely out of sight the particular purpose which it was intended to serve. By confining too much his attention to this, Dr. Reid has been led to carry further than was necessary or reasonable, an indiscriminate zeal against every speculation to which the epithet *hypothetical* can in any degree be applied. He has also been led to overlook the essential distinction between hypothetical inferences from one department of the material world to another, and hypothetical inferences from the material world to the intellectual. It was with the view of apologizing for inferences of the latter description, that Hartley advanced the logical principle which gave occasion to the foregoing discussion, and therefore I apprehend the proper answer to his argument is this: — Granting your principle to be true

true in all its extent, it furnishes no apology whatever for the theory of vibrations. If the science of mind admit of any illustration from the aid of hypotheses, it must be from such hypotheses alone as are consonant *to the analogy of its own phænomena*. To assume as a fact the existence of analogies between these phænomena and those of matter, is to sanction that very prejudice which it is the great object of the inductive science of mind to eradicate.' (P. 448.)

It is certainly true that this view of the nature of hypothetical reasoning incidentally occurs in Hartley's account of the doctrine of vibrations; — a portion of his treatise beyond comparison the least important, but with which alone, from his almost exclusive reference to it, we might imagine that Mr. Stewart was familiarly acquainted: — but, in the more detailed account of his opinions on this subject, contained in a succeeding chapter, we do not find the most distant allusion to the theory of vibrations; except in one or two instances in which it appears in a slight degree to have affected the phraseology of the author; — certainly, no express application of the principle to vindicate that theory. We do not, consequently, perceive any foundation for Mr. Stewart's assertion in this passage, that Dr. H.'s object in advancing this logical principle was to vindicate the hypothesis of vibrations: but, granting that this had been Dr. Hartley's express object, where is the impropriety or inconsistency of applying it to such a purpose? Have we any independent evidence for the maxim here laid down by Mr. Stewart, that no hypotheses can serve to illustrate the science of mind except such as are 'consonant to the analogy of its own phænomena?' (a phrase to which we do not profess to attach any very distinct ideas.) If not, it seems nothing more than a mere arbitrary assumption, exactly on a level with its opposite; and the establishment or refutation of either may equally lead to the enlargement of our knowlege. — We have another and more decisive objection to the account here given of Hartley's application of his principle; viz. that it proceeds on an entire misconception of the real nature of the hypothesis of vibrations. Let Mr. Stewart, or any one else, point out the passage in which Hartley professes to explain the nature of *mind* by the theory of vibrations. The application which he makes of it is entirely different, and perfectly consistent with the views which both he and Mr. Stewart have recommended. Whether any analogy prevail between the phænomena of matter and mind, or not, it must surely be admitted that they are united, that they are so organized as to affect each other; and that this union and mutual influence must be regulated by

certain general laws. Now it is precisely for the purpose of investigating these laws, (which Mr. Stewart himself admits to be a perfectly legitimate object of philosophical inquiry, see vol. i. p. 11.) that the theory of vibrations is brought forwards. Whether the object be or be not attained is an entirely different question; we are only vindicating the reasonableness of the object itself.

This article has already extended to such a length, that we have no longer room to notice, as minutely as some of them deserve, the discussions contained in the succeeding sections of this chapter. The conclusion, however, of the speculation concerning final causes, in which the author takes the opportunity to inveigh with unusual warmth against what is commonly called the system of utility in ethics, appears to us to call for a more particular examination. He sets out with denominating it 'a theory which resolves the obligation of all the different virtues into a *sense of their utility*.' Now we must take the liberty of protesting most decidedly against this representation of the doctrine in question. We know of no such theory. That of Paley, which is here more particularly meant, is widely different; resolving obligation into *utility*, not a *sense of utility*; which expressions, however similar, and however (as it appears) easily confounded, do really mean very different things. Having assumed this false statement, Mr. Stewart then presents us with several pages of very elaborate declamation on the evils which must follow, if the conduct of such a fallible and short-sighted creature as man were left to be regulated by no other principle than the private opinion of each individual, concerning the *expediency* of his own actions; and he concludes with this impressive passage:

'One very obvious consideration seems to have entirely escaped the notice of many late enquirers;—that in ethical researches, not less than in those which relate to the material universe, the business of the philosopher is limited to the analytical investigation of general laws from the observed phænomena; and that if, in any instance, his conclusions should be found inconsistent with acknowledged facts, the former must necessarily be corrected or modified by the latter. On such occasions the ultimate appeal must be always made to the moral sentiments and emotions of the human race. The representations for example which we read with so much delight, in those poets, of whatever age and country, who have most successfully touched the human heart;—of the heroical sacrifices made to gratitude, to parental duty, to filial piety, to conjugal affection;—are not amenable to the authority of any ethical theory, but are the most authentic records of the phænomena, which it is the object of such theories to generalize.

The sentiment of Publius Syrus, *Omne dixeris maledictum quum ingratum hominem dixeris*, — speaks a language which accords with every feeling of an unperverted mind; — it speaks the language of nature, which it is the province of the moralist *not* to criticize but to listen to with reverence. By employing our reason to interpret and to obey this, and the other moral suggestions of the heart; we may trust with confidence that we take the most effectual means in our power to augment the sum of human happiness; — but the discovery of this connection between virtue and utility is the slow result of extensive and philosophical combinations; and it would soon cease to have a foundation in truth, if men were to substitute *their own conceptions of expediency*, instead of those rules of actions which are inspired by the wisdom of God.' (P. 509.)

What a pity it is that so much eloquence should be so completely thrown away, in consequence of a mistake in the nature of the object to which it is intended to apply! We are persuaded that all who understand the subject will readily perceive that the whole of this argument proceeds (if we may be allowed the use of an expression derived from technical logic) on a most complete *ignoratio elenchi*. Mr. Stewart has overlooked a very obvious and important distinction, on which the supporters of this system lay the greatest stress, between the *foundation* and the *criterion* or standard of moral obligation. Utility, or the tendency of an action or disposition to promote happiness, is maintained as constituting the foundation, but it is *not* maintained as the universal criterion by which we are to judge in all cases whether an action be right or wrong. Because we regard the tendency of virtue to promote our own happiness, or the welfare of the world at large, as the *reason why* a conformity to it is desirable and obligatory on us, it by no means follows that it is solely or chiefly in consequence of, or in proportion to, the beneficial tendency of certain actions as they present themselves to our understandings, that we regard them as virtuous. This would be the extreme of arrogance and presumption. It would be to suppose ourselves omniscient and infallible; and it is indeed so palpably and glaringly absurd, that we are disposed to wonder that Mr. Stewart should not have paused before he ascribed it to the eminent philosophers who are the immediate objects of this attack. If from general reasoning, from our confidence in express declarations, from our experience of the great preponderance of the happiness which we actually enjoy over the sufferings to which we are occasionally exposed, or from any other considerations, we are fully convinced of the infinite goodness and wisdom of God, it is evident that we cannot avoid the conclusion that obedience to his will, by

whatever means ascertained, must be the surest mode of acquiring those objects which constitute the importance and obligation of virtue. In other words, we cannot but regard utility or expediency as the *foundation*, and the will of God as the *standard* or *criterion*, of virtue.

Lest we should be misunderstood, however, we must observe that, when we admit that Mr. Stewart has triumphantly refuted the doctrine which he ascribes to his opponents, we would by no means be supposed to imply that this refutation extends so far as he and other adversaries of the system of utility would have us believe, even when taken in reference to this principle considered merely as the *criterion* of morals. We may grant that the human faculties are limited and imperfect, or that our means of information and our powers of reasoning on this information are by no means sufficient to enable us to follow all our actions to their remotest consequences, without allowing that this method of determining the propriety of different modes of conduct is in no instance admissible. The constant resort to it, by all classes of practical moralists and divines, (when, for instance, having shewn the excellence and obligation of brotherly love from the divine word, and from such other sources as they may conceive it necessary to consult for this purpose, they proceed to enforce it on their readers or hearers from its utility or importance, from its tendency to promote the general happiness, our own happiness, or the improvement of the best and noblest part of our nature,) shews at least that mankind are capable of following these consequences to a certain extent; and that it is from such sources that their notions of obligation are in a great measure derived. Surely, cases occur in which the relations that we bear to others are so far simplified, and in which the consequences of certain modes of conduct are so obvious and glaring, as to force conviction on every reflecting mind. To deny, for example, that we may safely appeal to this as our rule in determining that an adherence to truth is important to the well-being of society, and that an habitual disregard of it is in the highest degree pernicious, would be to introduce a scepticism of the most alarming kind;—a scepticism in our opinion infinitely more dangerous to the interests of virtue, even than the flagrant misconception of the principle of utility supposed by Mr. Stewart to be recommended as a practical rule of conduct by the most eminent moral philosophers of modern times.

Now that we are speaking of *dangerous consequences*, how shall we find words adequate to express our strong feeling of the pernicious tendency of the doctrine so forcibly maintained in the passage last quoted?—a doctrine which calls on

us to supersede the authority of reason, and to enthrone imagination in her stead; which rejects the dictates of calm and sober investigation, in order to deliver us up to the guidance of blind sentiment and passion; which authorizes and indeed requires us to listen with reverence to the first crude suggestions and hasty impulses of the most untutored understanding, as rules of action inspired by the wisdom of God! An action is to be regarded as right orw rong, not because it is good or evil, but because it gratifies or offends a vague, mechanical, irrational sentiment! The patient investigations of philosophers respecting the probable consequences of human actions are to be received with distrust; while the sudden ebullitions and summary decrees of popular feeling, or the representations of poets, whose business it is not so much to enlighten the understanding as to excite the imagination and rouse the passions, are to be '*listened to with reverence!*'

We have to solicit indulgence, if in any thing we seem to have infringed on that respect which is certainly due to a writer who occupies so high and well-merited a place in the public estimation: but we have been actuated by no feeling except a sincere regard for what we consider as important truth, and a strong conviction of the dangerous tendency of some of the doctrines against which we have been arguing. Still we cannot and ought not to conclude without expressing our high sense of the service which Mr. Stewart has rendered to the student in this elevated branch of science, by the original and impressive views which he has communicated on many subjects, and the interest which he has diffused over all by that elegance and variety of illustration of which his work is so eminent an example. May he long continue to enlighten the world by his writings, and to exert a powerful influence in inspiring the youthful mind with a taste for these momentous and ennobling studies!

Art. V. *Iceland;* or the Journal of a Residence in that Island, during the Years 1814 and 1815. Containing Observations on the Natural Phenomena, History, Literature, and Antiquities of the Island; and the Religion, Character, Manners, and Customs of its Inhabitants. With an Introduction and Appendix. By Ebenezer Henderson, Doctor in Philosophy, Member of the Royal Society of Gottenburgh, Honorary Member of the Literary Society of Fuhnen, and Corresponding Member of the Scandinavian Literary Society at Copenhagen. Illustrated with a Map and Engravings. 2 Vols. 8vo. About 420 pages in each. 1l. 8s. Boards. Hamilton, &c. 1818.

To such of our readers as may be startled at the intimation of a new work on Iceland, it might suffice to remark that the Letters of Von Troil, and the interesting accounts of Sir John

John Stanley, Sir George Mackenzie, and Mr. Hooker, have still left very ample gleanings on a soil apparently bleak and desolate, to reward the exertions of future travellers. Accordingly, when Dr. Henderson retraces the paths already explored by the above-mentioned gentlemen, his text will not be found to be a mere repetition of their statements, but the vehicle either of original information or of corroborative illustrations of their positions. Most of the districts which he traversed, indeed, were wholly unknown to his countrymen, and many of them even to foreigners. He had, moreover, another apology to offer for the record of his arduous peregrinations. As the main object of his visit to Iceland was to ascertain the means of supplying the inhabitants with copies of the Bible in their native tongue, an article of which the deficiency appears to have been deplorable, he was speedily convinced that he should most effectually discharge the duties of his mission by making a progress through the island in various directions; and by obtaining from the clergy, and the local civil authorities, such accurate information as might render the generous exertions of the Copenhagen and of the British and Foreign Bible Societies most available to the spiritual wants of the poor and pious islanders. The religious character and resources of the Icelanders, therefore, form new and prominent topics in his narrative: though we cannot dissemble that the aggregate amount of his anxious inquiries and daily observations on these points may be comprised within very narrow bounds; for, with a few exceptions, imputed to the contagious influence of foreign example, the people are represented as primitive and virtuous in their manners and dispositions, sincerely devout, and extremely desirous of a more free and ready access to the Scriptures.

In order to avoid frequent repetitions, we may likewise notice in this general way that the exercise of hospitality eminently characterizes people of all ranks in Iceland. When we reflect, indeed, on their lack of Bibles and Schools, we almost feel tempted to inquire, whether the multiplication of both would render them a more worthy and intelligent race of beings, than Dr. Henderson's estimate of their character induces us to believe them to be at present. On one occasion, however, it incidentally transpires that they are indebted for their *sobriety* principally to a high tax on spirituous liquors; and we also suspect that, in the delicate function of delineating human character, the author is not always sufficiently discriminative, or consistent. Thus, from the uniform tenor of his journal, we had conceived that the clergy of Iceland, with the exception of a very few wicked heretics, *yclept*

Socinians, formed an untainted corps of evangelical saints, until we were abruptly undeceived by the following sweeping remark: 'Situated as the clergy in Iceland are, — cut off from all communication with each other, they feel little or no community of interest; the great object is apt to dwindle away even where it has once been in sight; and a deplorable apathy if not actual apostacy ensues.' Dr. H.'s parallel of the old and new school of preaching strongly savours of the prejudices of Calvinism, and implies the reprobation of all morality that is not derived from peculiar views of Christianity. Yet his theological creed is not of that gloomy or morbid complexion, which prompts him to scowl on the beauty and wonders of external nature, or to treat with indifference or contempt the inestimable blessings of human learning; for he contemplates with the most lively interest those striking phænomena which beguiled the loneliness of his pilgrimage, and his literary remarks and disquisitions bespeak the accomplished scholar and the antiquary. Of the *sincerity* of his views and intentions, we cannot adduce more satisfactory proof than the undeviating spirit and perseverance with which he encountered the discomforts, difficulties, and perils of his vocation. To the unvarnished recital of his hardships and escapes, the most callous will surely not deny his sympathy; nor from the display of such undaunted constancy, in the prosecution of an honest purpose, will the most sturdy objector to the utility of Bible-Societies withhold his praise. — We learn that;

'It was not the intention of the author to have entered at all on the subject of the history and literature of Iceland, especially as they have been treated with such consummate ability by Dr. Holland, in those parts of Sir George Mackenzie's Travels which are furnished by his pen; but it afterwards occurred to him, that many of those who perused these volumes might not have an opportunity of seeing that work; and, in order to remove the defect which must thus have attached to them, he has drawn up a brief sketch of the island and its inhabitants, and given it in the form of an introduction. Such as may wish to obtain fuller information on these subjects, he most cordially refers to Dr. Holland's Preliminary Dissertation.

'The inquiry into Icelandic poetry was occasioned by a close study of that species of composition, with a view to ascertain the meaning of the Edda, in which is contained the ancient mythology of the Scandinavian nations. In this study the author was greatly assisted by a Danish work, entitled, "Nordens Ældste Poesie," by Jon Olafson, a learned Icelandic antiquary and philologist.

'The map is constructed from the most recent maps which we have of Iceland, with a number of corrections, made from the author's personal observation, assisted by an accurate sketch, which was

was kindly furnished him by one of the Danish officers employed in surveying the coasts.

'For any inaccuracies, in point of language, the author claims the indulgence of his readers; which he feels assured they will not deny him, when he informs them, that during an absence of thirteen years from his native country, his attention has been more directed to the study of other languages, than to the cultivation of his own.'

Dr. Henderson sailed from Copenhagen on the evening of the 8th of June, 1814, and, early on the following morning, passed the island of Hveen, the favourite residence of Tycho Brahé; whose castle, or observatory of Uraniaborg, is now faintly traced in the remnant of a vault, and a few slight vestiges of the fortifications. Being detained more than twelve days at Gottenburgh, Dr. H. did not reach Reikiavik till the 15th of July. On landing, he was welcomed with the greatest kindness and friendship. His first excursion was to Gardè, where the very Rev. Magnus Magnusson, Archdeacon of the village, gave him the same cordial reception which he uniformly experienced in the sequel of his journeys.

'After some desultory conversation, we came to the subject of the Scriptures; and I was happy to be informed that the copies of the New Testament that had been sent him in 1812 had soon been disposed of, and that the desire of obtaining them was at last so keen, that the peasants would have paid double the price, if it had only been in their power to obtain them. He produced a specimen of the high estimation in which the Divine oracles are held by the Icelanders, and the assiduity with which they apply to the study of them. It was a copy of the Bible in folio, a great part of which had been devoured by the tooth of time; but the defective pages had all been replaced, and the text supplied in the most accurate manner. The hand-writing was such as would do honour to any writing-master in Europe. On my putting the question, whether it had not been written by a clergyman, I was told, to my no small surprise, that it had been done by a common peasant, and that such instances of elegant penmanship are by no means uncommon in Iceland.'

The continuous regions of lava, along which our traveller's route was directed, on his way to and from Gardè, were a dismal earnest of the many similar tracts that yet awaited him; and here we cannot refrain from remarking, once for all, that his journal bears ample testimony to the important fact that Iceland is more generally volcanized than some geologists, who have never seen it, are willing to admit.

Unfortunately for his own comfort, the Doctor found that he had missed, by a month, the most favourable opportunity of the season for the distribution of Bibles and New Testaments;

the inhabitants, who annually resort from various quarters of the island to Reikiavik for the purpose of traffic, having returned to their respective homes. This circumstance induced him to undertake a series of painful journeys over a country destitute of formed roads, inns, and bridges; and often presenting an unmeasurable extent of rugged waste. Horses afford the only means of conveying travellers and luggage; and a tent and a compass are indispensible requisites. Soon after he had proceeded northward, he entered on a trackless moor; in which, during five hours, he saw not a single house, nor 'indeed any living creature, excepting a few golden plovers, which, from their melancholy warble, only added to the gloominess of the scenery.' Next morning, the lake of Thingvalla softened and relieved the general features of desolation.

'After bathing in the lake, the bottom of which consisted of the finest particles of lava, and partaking of a dish of warm coffee, which I contrived to boil on the ground, we set off for *Thingvalla*, across a plain entirely covered with lava; but, as it was smoother and less broken, we rode over it without much difficulty. The track we followed led us all at once to the brink of the frightful chasm, called *Almannagiâ* *, where the solid masses of burnt rock have been disrupted, so as to form a fissure, or gap, not less than an hundred and eighty feet deep; in many places nearly of the same width; and about three miles in length. At first sight, the stupendous precipices inspired us with a certain degree of terror, which, however, soon left us, and we spent nearly half an hour in surveying the deep chasms, running nearly parallel with the main one, almost below our feet. On the west side of the rent, at no great distance from its southern termination, it is met by another opening, partially filled with large masses of broken rock, down which the traveller must resolve to proceed. Binding up the bridles of our horses, we made them descend before us, while we contemplated with surprise the undaunted nimbleness with which they leaped from one step of this natural staircase to another. In our own descent, it was not without impressions of fear that we viewed the immensely huge pieces of rock that projected from the sides of the chasm, almost overhead, and which appeared to be but slenderly attached to the precipice. When we arrived at the bottom, we found ourselves situated in the midst of a fine green; and, after stopping once more to admire the wild

* The etymology of this epithet I have not been able to learn with any certainty. Either it denotes the chasm capable of containing *the whole population* of Iceland, or that through which *all* must pass who travel this way; or, what is more likely than either, the fissure in which the generality of the people pitched their tents when they attended the *Althing*, or General Assembly, held in the neighbourhood.'

and

and rugged grandeur of the scenery, we again mounted our steeds, and reaching a pass in the eastern cliffs, which, owing to the sinking of the ground, are considerably lower, we made our egress with the utmost ease.

'We now entered the *Thingvalla*, or Court Valley; and, crossing the river *Öxerá*, by which it is divided, came about one o'clock to *Thingvalla* church, where we were kindly received, and resolved to await our baggage, which had proceeded by a more circuitous route. The pastor is an aged man of sixty-nine. His parish consists of twelve families; and though he could not give me any certain statement, yet he did not believe that there were more than two, or, at most, three of them that were in possession of a copy of the Bible. He promised to inform his parishioners of the supply that had come to the island. The church is very small, not much larger than that of *Mossfell*, and is filled with barrels, books, and chests, which serve the purpose of seats, and, on a shelf before the altar, is a coffin, which the clergyman has prepared for himself; and which, in all likelihood, he must soon occupy.'

A more attractive landscape soon opened on the view, displaying other lakes, the steam of spouting springs, streams winding over extensive plains, and the domineering aspect of Mount Hekla. The fording of the rapid Brusara was safely effected, after a severe struggle; and the reader will easily conceive that this was not the only occasion of the kind which was attended with difficulty and danger. The journalist's account of the great and little Geysers is minute and animated, and will be eagerly perused by persons who are strangers to the former descriptions of these remarkable phænomena. From two apparently successful experiments, however, Dr. H. infers, rather hastily, that a jet may be produced at pleasure by throwing stones into the pipe; for how could he be satisfied that the two eruptions, to which we allude, would not have taken place if no stones had been projected into the basin? At all events, a more ample induction of cases would be desirable.

As the Doctor pursued his way over an unsightly desert, the sun rose only to render more visible the 'devastations of ancient fires, or regions of perpetual frost.' The green grass of the valley of Eyafiord, the river by which it is watered, and the flocks grazing in every direction, at length afforded a delightful contrast to eyes which, during four days, had gazed on nothing but stones and snow. Among other worthy personages commemorated in this northern tour, we ought not to omit Jon Thorlakson, the venerable translator of Paradise Lost.

'Like

'Like most of his brethren at this season of the year, we found him in the meadow, assisting his people in hay-making. On hearing of our arrival, he made all the haste home which his age and infirmity would allow; and, bidding us welcome to his humble abode, he ushered us into the apartment, where he translated my countryman into Icelandic. The door is not quite four feet in height, and the room may be about eight feet in length, by six in breadth. At the inner end is the poet's bed, and close to the door, over against a small window not exceeding two feet square, is a table where he commits to paper the effusions of his muse. On my telling him, that my countrymen would not have forgiven me, nor could I have forgiven myself, had I passed through this part of the island without paying him a visit, he replied, that the translation of Milton had yielded him many a pleasant hour, and often given him occasion to think of England; but as his residence was so far north, and he had now lived so long without seeing any of Milton's countrymen, he had not entertained the most distant idea that ever he was to be favoured with such a gratification.

'Of his translation of Paradise Lost, only the three first books have been printed. They are inserted in the xiii. xiv. and xv. volumes of the publications of the Icelandic Literary Society; but as this Society closed their labours in the year 1796, our poet was deprived of a channel through which he might communicate the remainder of his translation to the public. To print it at his own expense was altogether out of the question, as the whole of his annual income from the parishes of *Bægisá* and *Backa* does not exceed thirty rix-dollars*, and even of this sum he must give nearly the one half to Sira Halgrimr, who officiates for him in the latter parish. The following lines he has composed in allusion to his poverty, the common lot of poets:

"Fátæktin er min Fylgicona, Frá thvi eg kom i thennann Heim; Vid höfum hafad saman svona, Slötiu Vetur fátt i tveim; Enn hvört vid skiliumz hédan af Hann veit er ockur saman gaf."	'Literally: "*Ever since I came into this world, I have been wedded to poverty, who has now hugged me to her bosom these seventy winters all but two; and whether we shall ever be separated here below, is only known to Him who joined us together.*"

'That the entire poem has never been printed, is a real loss to Scandinavian literature; as it not only rises superior to any other translation of Milton, but rivals, and in many instances, in which the Eddaic phraseology is introduced, almost seems to surpass the original itself. Besides supporting its prevailing character, a quality required of every translator, Thorlakson has nicely imitated its peculiar turns, and more refined modifications; and though, on certain occasions, he has found it impossible to give the particular effect of certain sounds, yet this defect is more

'* About 6l. 5s. sterling.'

than

than compensated, by the multiplicity of happy combinations, where none exist in the original, which is to be ascribed to the richness the Icelandic possesses of such combinations, and the complete command the translator has had of his native language.

'The kind of verse he has employed is that called *Fornyrda-lag*, or "the versification of antiquity," which is remarkable for its natural ease and simplicity, and hardly requires any farther study than what regards the alliteration. It is of this kind of versification that the *Völuspâ* and other sublime poems in Sæmundar Edda consist: a circumstance which furnishes the strongest internal proof of their antiquity, as all the Skalds, who lived subsequent to the ninth century, prided themselves in rendering their poetry in the highest degree intricate and artificial. I was fortunate enough to obtain a well written copy of the Icelandic Milton, carefully revised by the translator himself, so that it may be regarded as possessing all the accuracy of an autograph. Should circumstances prove favourable, I may, perhaps, at some future period, get it printed in England.

'For some years past, our poet has been occupied with a translation of Klopstock's Messiah. The first fourteen books are ready, and the fifteenth was begun last spring. He acknowledged, however, the impossibility of his reaching the bold and adventurous heights of that poet so happily as he had done the flights of Milton, being now upwards of seventy years of age. Alluding to his halting, he said, it could not be matter of surprise, since Milton had used him several years as his riding-horse, and spurred him unmercifully through the celestial, chaotic, and infernal regions. He has also translated Pope's Essay on Man, besides different Danish and German poems, and has composed numerous original pieces of a miscellaneous nature, the most beautiful of which is the poem of thanks to the British and Foreign Bible Society, inserted in the Appendix.

'The situation of his abode is truly poetic. It lies near the junction of the three beautiful vallies called *Hörgardal*, *Ömadal*, and *Bægisârdal*, the rivers of which also join at the same time, and form a broad and rapid stream. Close behind the farm is a number of beautiful cascades, at various heights up the mountain; and the prospect is bounded on every side by stupendous mountains, some of which exceed 4000 feet in height, and assume at the summit the most rugged and fantastic forms.'

Holum, in consequence of the removal of the see, school, and printing-press, has declined from its antient fame, and already assumes the aspect of a deserted village. Here the learned and revered Bishop, Gudbrand Thorlakson, prepared and printed the first edition of the Icelandic Bible, and consecrated a life of piety and virtue to the best interests of his flock. While the author mourns over the departed learning of the place, he is not unmindful of its still existing and still *familiar* hospitality.

When

'When the hour of rest approached, I was conducted by my kind host and hostess into a back apartment, where was an ancient but excellent bed, on which, I had every reason to conclude, more than one of the Holum Bishops had reposed. A ceremony now took place, which exhibits, in the strongest light, the hospitality and innocent simplicity of the Icelandic character. Having wished me a good night's rest, they retired, and left their eldest daughter to assist me in pulling off my pantaloons and stockings, a piece of kindness, however, which I would a thousand times rather have dispensed with, as it was so repugnant to those feelings of delicacy to which I had been accustomed. In vain I remonstrated against it as unnecessary. The young woman maintained it was the custom of the country, and their duty to help the weary traveller. When I had got into bed, she brought a long board, which she placed before me to prevent my falling out; and, depositing a basin of new milk on a table close to my head, bade me good night, and retired. Such I afterwards found to be universally the custom in Icelandic houses. Where there are no daughters in the family, the service is performed by the landlady herself, who considers it a great honour to have it in her power to shew this attention to a stranger.'

In the performance of his circuit round the northern and eastern coasts of the island, Dr. Henderson seems to have observed with care, and described in his usual plain and perspicuous manner, the hot springs of Reikiahverf, (less remarkable than the Geysers,) streams of lava, and the sulphur-mines. With the mud-eruptions of Mount Krabla, one of the many volcanos with which the island has been agitated, his mind was so awfully impressed, that he seriously recommends the scene to the contemplation of unreflecting reprobates. At the imminent risk of his life, he crossed the Yökul river, and still found perplexity the companion of his path.

'It had now,' he says, 'become so dark, that we could scarcely see to re-load the horses; and yet we had six miles of a desert country to explore alone, the guide from *Reykiahlid* quitting us at this place. At first we could discover the track from the greater darkness of the sand, but we had not advanced two miles ere it became wholly invisible; and, after alighting from our horses, and feeling in vain with our hands, we were obliged to commit ourselves to God, and the instinct of one of our horses, as his instrument, during the remainder of the way. I had often heard of surprising feats being accomplished by the Icelandic horses; yet they had more the appearance of the tales of other years than that of sober facts. In my present circumstances, an opportunity presented itself of bringing them to the test of experience. Suffering the steeds to go loose, and placing the oldest first, we were conducted without a single accident, over heights and hollows, till, all at once, we were stopped in our progress by a steep elevation, the nature of which, with all our groping, we could not possibly ascertain. At last, after crossing and re-crossing it several times, my servant

servant explained the mystery, by exclaiming, "Ho! here is a window!"* So that, after having rode four miles across an unknown desert, in a night of extreme darkness, we had the great satisfaction to find we had arrived at *Grimstad*, the appointed limit of our journey for that day.'

Although the Doctor does not always discriminate with scientific precision the mineral substances which occurred to his observation, yet his indications of them will generally suffice to direct the researches of such professed mineralogists as may feel inclined to explore the same remote and dreary regions. In several places, chalcedonies, zeolites, and jaspers, appear to abound; in others, striking exhibitions of columnar basalt invite the attention of the curious: — here we are furnished with some interesting details relative to the phænomenon of moving or sliding mountains of ice; — and there with a particular account of strata of *surturbrand*. A brief notice of Öræfa Yökul, translated from the narrative of Surgeon Paulson, who ascended it, is communicated in a note. This mountain, of which the height is reckoned at 6240 feet, is the greatest elevation in the island. The history of its extraordinary *exundation*, in 1727, penned by a respectable eye-witness, is unfortunately too long for our transcription; as are the circumstantial accounts of the disastrous eruption of the Skäptar volcano, in 1783, and of those of Kötlugia at different periods.

At Hörgland, Dr. Henderson visited one of the four hospitals established for the reception of incurable lepers; the genuine *Elephantiasis*, or *Lepra Arabum*, prevailing in Iceland, especially in its southern and western quarters: owing, it is alleged, to the inhabitants being so much addicted to fish and rancid food, to the insalubrity of the air, to the wearing of wet woollen clothes, and to a disregard of cleanly customs.

The author again reached Reikiavik, after an absence of fifty-eight days, in the course of which he had traversed, *per tot discrimina rerum*, upwards of twelve hundred English miles; and he was now constrained to suspend his movements during a tedious but not very rigorous winter of eight months. Perceiving that the society of the place was little suited to his serious views of things, he passed most of his time in revising

* On relating this anecdote to one of the most respectable public officers in Reykiavik, he informed me that, one dark night, he was in like manner puzzled by a height that fell in his way; but applying the whip to his horse, he obliged him to mount it, and did not discover his situation till one of the fore-feet of the animal sunk into a hole, which, on stepping off, he found to be the chimney of a house.'

the

the notes of his journal, and putting together his reflections on the climate, the occupations of the inhabitants, their education, and other general topics; on none of which will our limits permit us greatly to dilate. With regard to climate, we shall merely remark that the names of *Greenland* and *Iceland*, originating in very accidental circumstances, are apt to convey erroneous notions of the comparative temperature of the two countries; that the weather in Iceland is very unsettled, but less intensely cold than in the south of Scandinavia; that its seasons have degenerated in the lapse of ages; that, in the course of the last century, the winters of 1717, 1742, 1784, and 1792, were extremely severe; that the approach of floating masses of ice from Greenland materially affects the temperature of the atmosphere; and that the summer is short and unsteady.

The principal occupations of the inhabitants are fishing, manuring the fields, cutting the turf, tending the herds and flocks, collecting the *Lichen Islandicus*, thrashing and grinding the *Arundo arenaria*, (which is converted into cakes and porridge,) the bartering of commodities at the factories, and hay-making. During winter, the men are busied in fabricating various implements of iron, copper, wood, &c.; 'and some of them are wonderfully expert as silversmiths, their work, at times, in this branch, being only distinguishable from that done in Copenhagen by the absence of the stamp.' The preparation of hides for shoes, the making of ropes of hair or wool, and a rude and aukward process of fulling their woollen stuffs, are also among their ordinary employments.

'Besides preparing the food, the females employ their time in spinning, which is most commonly done with the spindle and distaff; knitting stockings, mittens, shirts, &c. as also in embroidering bed-covers, saddle-clothes, and cushions, which they execute with much taste, interspersing flowers and figures of various colours.

'A winter-evening in an Icelandic family presents a scene in the highest degree interesting and pleasing. Between three and four o'clock the lamp is hung up in the *badstofa*, or principal apartment, which answers the double purpose of a bed-chamber and sitting-room, and all the members of the family take their station, with their work in their hands, on their respective beds, all of which face each other. The master and mistress, together with the children, or other relations, occupy the beds at the inner end of the room; the rest are filled by the servants.

'The work is no sooner begun, than one of the family, selected on purpose, advances to a seat near the lamp, and commences the evening lecture, which generally consists of some old saga, or such other histories as are to be obtained on the island. Being but badly supplied with printed books, the Icelanders are under the

the necessity of copying such as they can get the loan of, which sufficiently accounts for the fact, that most of them write a hand equal in beauty to that of the ablest writing-masters in other parts of Europe. Some specimens of their Gothic writing are scarcely inferior to copper-plate. The reader is frequently interrupted, either by the head, or some of the more intelligent members of the family, who make remarks on various parts of the story, and propose questions, with a view to exercise the ingenuity of the children and servants. In some houses, the sagas are repeated by such as have got them by heart; and instances are not uncommon of itinerating historians, who gain a livelihood during the winter, by staying at different farms till they have exhausted their stock of literary knowlege. It is greatly to be deplored, that a people so distinguished by their love of science, and possessing the most favourable opportunities of cultivating it, should be destitute of the means necessary for improving them to advantage. Surely the learned in Europe who have profited so much from the ancient labours of the Icelanders, and are now in possession of their most valuable manuscripts, are bound in justice to reciprocate, and furnish them with such books in their own language, as would make them acquainted with the more important branches of human knowlege.

'The custom just described appears to have existed among the Scandinavians from time immemorial. The person chosen as recitor was called *Thulr*, and was always celebrated for his knowlege of past events; and the dignity and pathos with which he related them. It is to him, and the seat or pulpit on which he was elevated, that Odin alludes, in the following part of the *Hávamál*, or "Sublime":—

'Mál er at thylia	*'Tis time to recite*
Thular stoli á,	*From the seat of eloquence,*
Urthar brunni at;	*Close by the fountain of Urd:**
Satec oc thagthac,	*I sat and was silent,*
Satec oc hugthac,	*I saw and reflected,*
Hlydda ec á manna mál.	*I listened to that which was told,*

'Instead of the Sagas, some of the more pious substitute the historical books of Scripture; and as they always give the preference to poetry, most of these books have been translated into metre, chiefly with a view to this exercise.

'At the conclusion of the evening-labours, which are frequently continued till near midnight, the family join in singing a psalm or two; after which, a chapter from some book of devotion is read, if the family be not in possession of a Bible, but where this Sacred Book exists, it is preferred to every other. A prayer is also read by the head of the family, and the exercise concludes

'* By the *Brunn*, or "fountain of Urd," the poet here means the source of wisdom, and intimates, that as he had long sat and listened to the tales of other years, he was now qualified for the chair himself.'

with

with a psalm. Their morning devotions are conducted in a similar manner, at the lamp. When the Icelander awakes, he does not salute any person that may have slept in the room with him, but hastens to the door, and lifting up his eyes towards heaven, adores Him who made the heavens and the earth, the author and preserver of his being, and the source of every blessing. He then returns into the house, and salutes every one he meets, with "God grant you a good day."'

About the beginning of May 1815, Dr. Henderson made preparations for a tour to the western quarters of the island, although the roads were still almost impassable, and horses in working condition could scarcely be procured. This portion of his travels is also detailed with considerable minuteness of local description; in all the interest of which, however, it cannot be expected that our readers should participate: not to add that some of the most prominent information which it conveys had been anticipated by Sir George Mackenzie and others. The stacks of basaltic pillars at Stappen, for example, had been already described and figured. Dr. H. agreeably descants on his ascent to the summit of the Snæfell Yökul, which he accomplished with less difficulty and hazard than he had been led to expect. In the prosecution of this route, he encountered two very dangerous passes, and cleared them both without injury.

'Having left my tent and bedding at *Hvol*,' adds the Doctor, 'I was now under the necessity of choosing an Icelandic bed, which, I must confess, I did not like, on more accounts than one; but, as my fatigue was excessive, I was the more easily reconciled to my situation. I was shewn into an out-house, while the mistress of the farm made up a bed for me in the sleeping apartment, to which I soon repaired, through a dark passage, from which a few steps led me into my chamber. The most of the family being still in bed, raised themselves nearly erect, naked as they were, to behold the early and strange visitor. Though almost suffocated for want of air, I should soon have fallen asleep, had it not been for an universal scratching that took place in all the beds in the room, which greatly excited my fears, notwithstanding the new and cleanly appearance of the wadmel on which I lay. At one period of the operation, the noise was, seriously speaking, paramount to that made by a groom in combing down his horses. Ultimately, however, every disagreeable emotion was stilled by the balmy power of sleep, and I enjoyed for five hours the soundest repose I ever had in my life.'

We have already alluded to the author's personal jeopardy in crossing rivers; and the ensuing passage may serve for a specimen of the risk to which he was so frequently exposed on other occasions.

'The mountain-road I found much more dangerous than on my passage north, especially a steep precipice on the south side of the mountain, below which is a profound chasm, called *Manna-pa-gil*, where, as the name indicates, numbers have lost their lives. Here I myself had a very narrow escape; for as we crossed a sloping bed of ice, directly above the chasm, my horse fell with me, yet endeavoured to save himself by allowing the hinder part of his body to swing downwards, and sprawling with his fore feet in order to stop his progress. After sliding down with me to the distance of five or six yards, and only a few moments appeared to separate me from eternity, I providentially succeeded in extricating my feet from the stirrups, and, making a sudden leap, reached a part of the ice partially covered with snow, where I was enabled to retain my hold. The poor horse, after sliding a few yards further, also stopped, but being unable to raise himself, he kept a firm hold of the ice with his fore feet, trembling violently at the danger to which, by a natural instinct, he knew he was exposed. In this situation he remained till the guide and I got some ropes tied round his head, when, sensible of our aid, he immediately rose, and by a few daring leaps ultimately reached the snow.'

An insulated chapter, which needs not to detain us, is allotted to statements relative to the trade of Iceland, to the establishment of a Bible-society, and to *catching salmon* in the Hellarâ.

The concluding portion of the journal refers to another excursion to the north of the island, in the company of Messrs. Thomson and Brorson, from Holstein, who were desirous of visiting some remarkable spots in the interior. The farm of Husafell, one of their resting stations, suggested the ensuing remarks on a disputed point in natural history.

'There is nothing about *Husafell* deserving of notice except its mouse, the history of which has rendered it more famous than other parts of the island where the same zoological phenomenon has presented itself. This animal, which is supposed by Olafsen and Povelsen to be a variation of the wood, or economical mouse, displays a surprising degree of sagacity, both in conveying home its provisions, and the manner in which it stocks them in the magazine appropriated for that purpose. In a country, says Mr. Pennant*, where berries are but thinly dispersed, these little animals are obliged to cross rivers to make their distant forages. In their return with the booty to their magazines, they are obliged to repass the stream; of which Mr. Olafsen (Olafsen and Povelsen) gives the following account: "The party, which consists of from six to ten, select a flat piece of dried cow-dung, on which they place the berries on a heap in the middle; then, by their united force, bring it to the water's edge, and, after launching it, embark,

'* Introd. to Arctic Zoology, p. lxx.'

and place themselves round the heap, with their heads joined over it, and their backs to the water, their tails pendent in the stream, serving the purpose of rudders." Mr. Hooker * ridicules the idea of any such process, and tells us, that every sensible Icelander laughs at the account as fabulous; but the individuals he alludes to must have been possessed of an equal degree of incredulity with himself; and every considerate naturalist will rather be disposed, with our celebrated zoologist †, to reason analogically from the well-known sagacity of the beaver and squirrel, than deny the probability of the case.

'Having been apprised of the doubts that were entertained on this subject, before setting out on my second excursion, I made a point of inquiring of different individuals as to the reality of the account, and I am happy in being able to say, that it is now established as an important fact in natural history, by the testimony of two eye-witnesses of unquestionable veracity, the clergyman of *Briâmslæk*, and Madame Benedictson of *Stickesholm*; both of whom assured me that they had seen the expedition performed repeatedly. Madame B., in particular, recollected having spent a whole afternoon, in her younger days, at the margin of a small lake on which these skilful navigators had embarked, and amused herself and her companions by driving them away from the sides of the lake as they approached them. I was also informed that they make use of dried mushrooms as sacks, in which they convey their provisions to the river, and thence to their homes. Nor is the structure of their nests less remarkable. From the surface of the ground a long passage runs into the earth, similar to that of the Icelandic houses, and terminates in a large and deep hole, intended to receive any water that may find its way through the passage, and serving at the same time as a place for their dung. About two-thirds of the passage in, two diagonal roads lead to their sleeping apartment and the magazine, which they always contrive to keep free from wet.'

The caverns of Surtshellir, which were explored by the party, are very extensive and striking openings in masses of lava; and the appearances which they exhibit, at their different stages, are particularly described: as are the hot springs of Reykium, and some of the more remarkable earthquakes with which the island has been visited. It is now time, however, to re-convey this intelligent and pious traveller to Copenhagen; which he reached after a rough passage of seventeen days.

The preceding extracts and remarks will sufficiently enable our readers to appreciate the character of these volumes. Their author has obviously no pretensions to elegant or sprightly writing: but he seems to have prosecuted his observations with steadiness and accuracy, and to have reported

* 'Tour in Iceland.' † Ibid.

them

them with fidelity. Having already devoted so much space to the consideration of his narrative, we regret that we cannot even touch on the matters which he has thrown into the form of an appendix, and which he has treated in a manner alike creditable to his industry and his discernment. We can merely state that they consist of 'a historical view of the translations and different editions of the Icelandic Scriptures; —a poem of thanks from Iceland to the British and Foreign Bible Society, by Sira Jon Thorlakson of Baegisa; —and an inquiry into the origin, progress, nature, and characteristic features, of Icelandic Poetry.'

ART. VI. *Women;* or, Pour et Contre. A Tale by the Author of "Bertram," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

IT is evident that much useful instruction, as well as harmless entertainment, may be conveyed in a novel; and it is not necessary that the information, which the reader may gain from such productions, should be confined to a few unconnected passages: but extensive and permanent good may be done by the happy enforcement of moral feeling, in its best vehicle, the contrast of character. Here the extravagant and the absurd may be used as a foil to the moderate and the rational; genius may be shewn to depend on knowlege for its best ornament as well as its only support; and virtue may be proved, by striking example, to be deprived of all her power when she loses the protection of prudence. Yet, alas! how seldom have objects so dignified or so beneficial as these been discoverable, by any stretch of candour, in the popular class of compositions of which we are now examining a specimen! They are, confessedly, in general, among the worst sources of that depravation of intellect and of sentiment, to which so large a portion of the literature of the last half century has contributed. Less offensive to delicacy of ear, but if possible more dangerous to purity of heart, than many of their earlier brethren, the novels of the period in question (with some glorious exceptions) have sapped the very foundation of morals, by placing the vicious in the most interesting situations, and by representing the force of ungovernable passion as one of the first indications of lofty and original character. — We should, however, be led much too far from the lucubrations of Mr. Maturin, if we were to follow this train of thought; and some of the ideas, which we are desirous of bringing to the recollection of the

reader, will find a place in the course of our examination of his work.

The public are in possession of our opinion on the Tragedies of this writer; and we have now unequivocally to announce to them that 'Women; or, *Pour et Contre*,' (a title of itself sufficient to impeach the good taste and good sense of the author,) is the worthy and legitimate successor of those faulty monsters, *Bertram* and *Manuel*. We shall give a general sketch of the story; accompanied by quotations from such scenes as we think are the most tolerably executed, and by strictures on the language, sentiments, and characters.

A youth, of good fortune, is introduced to us on his arrival at the metropolis of Ireland: but that arrival is marked by one of the most improbable, abrupt, and violent events. He rescues a young lady, who has uttered a plaintive cry from a carriage, (as it enters the Phœnix Park!!!) and whom he pursues to the cottage of an old hag; described, as our readers will be pleased to remember, with all the horrible attributes of an Indian Squaw in a war-dance. — At the *turnpike*, the lady is met by her natural protector, after De Courcy (for no less than *De Courcy* is our hero) has held her for some time in his guardian-arms. A-propos to nothing, some time afterward, he meets her, as his first female acquaintance in Dublin, at Bethesda Chapel: a favourite resort of a Calvinistic sect, to which the fair incognita belongs. To expose the repellent and unsocial manners of this sect, who are called in derision, levelled at their own presumption, '*evangelical*,' seems the main moral object of the writer; and we grant that his design, had it been executed judiciously and fairly, would have been praiseworthy: but it is obvious that, to attain this purpose of discountenancing spiritual pride and gloomy superstition, the author must not on the one hand grossly overcharge the picture which he wishes to hold up to reprobation; nor, on the other, must he omit to present a rational and amiable contrast, in the person of at least *one* specimen of pure and social Christianity. In both these points, Mr. Maturin has entirely failed. We have enough of vice and folly, and mistaken principle, but where is the "*Allworthy*" of the picture? Where is the exemplar of natural unaffected goodness, cheered and supported by religion, and accessible to all the sweet charities of life? We must assert that, when the excesses and perversions of piety form a principal feature in any picture, good judgment and honest feeling ought to enforce the necessity of introducing a *defence* which may counterbalance the *attack*.

Eva Wentworth (for such is the name that De Courcy worships as belonging to the goddess of his young idolatry) is yet in her earliest teens; and she lives in a *brown-papered* apartment, in which, at night, the candles with long *unsnuffed* wicks "cast a dim religious light" on the folios of Calvinistic controversy that form the library and the delight of her uncle. After a considerable period of dull monotonous courtship, carried on in perfect silence and seemingly in utter abstraction on the part of the lady, an event happens to break the calm of this puddle of death and divinity; a calm which had only been enlivened before by the violent and ignorant declamations of a red-haired, raw-boned Calvinist, ycleped Mac Owen; who, it seems, is a loathsome aspirant to the hand of the speechless Eva. The event to which we allude is the arrival of Madame Dalmatiani, otherwise called Zaira, a celebrated actress and singer, in the city of Dublin. This fascinating personage forms either the '*Pour*' or the '*Contre*' in Mr. Maturin's amorous *mélange*; — but *which*, we are not able to decide: — nor do we by any means believe that, if the author were startled by a sudden question to this effect, he could as instantly return a distinct answer. However this may be, Zaira's earthly songs are the contrast to Eva's "*divine songs*;" Eva's black ground of British velvet is intended to set off the glittering whiteness of Dalmatiani's foreign pearls; the absorption of Eva in a narrow sphere of sectarism is to display the grand latitudinarianism of Zaira; and the mere useful attainments of the one are designed to emblazon the superb decoration of *belles lettres* and the fine arts, which is appended to the petticoat of the other.

So far, so good: — but — "*seri studiorum! quive putetis?*" &c. &c. How can these *harum-scarum* authors imagine that the mere conception of a good plot is tantamount to the execution of it? How can they mistake design for colouring, abilities for knowlege, and a sketch for a picture? The *see-saw* here attempted to be described, the play of contrasted character, cleverly kept up, might have afforded great delight: but it is so perfectly wild and unmanageable in the hands of its inventor, (if he may be so called,) that it loses all its force in diffusion, and all its delicacy in abruptness: for both diffuse and abrupt is this novelist, in alternate succession; — now passing over most interesting events, without an effort to do them justice; then at once plunging us into a sea of difficulties, out of which we may struggle at our leisure.

De Courcy instantly falls in love with Zaira; and with some qualms of conscience, and visits to the *brown-papered* apartment, "few and far between," he maintains a regular

attendance at the literary, musical, elegant, illuminated, flower-woven, Circæan parties, of his dear Dalmatiani. In due process of time, but with striking suddenness of resolution, he *elopes* with Zaira:—they set out on their travels;—and now the plot thickens, and rapidly (or at least we must rapidly follow it) advances to a conclusion. Eva writes her ungrateful swain a broken-hearted epistle, which in many parts is naturally and extremely touching; and, indeed, if this author were not at times superior to his general strain, it would be impossible to pursue him far beyond the title-page to his second volume. Zaira is deserted at Paris; that is, she is less the object of attention than Eulalie De Tourangee, a new flame of the fickle De Courcy; who, by the way, is the *most* uninteresting, the *most* heartless, and the *most* handsome, hero of eighteen (for both he and Eva are perfect *chickens*) that we ever encountered. A Mr. Montgomery, who has frequently been introduced on the scene as a lover of Eva, but as resigning the pursuit to De Courcy, now appears at Paris, and informs the hero that his forsaken mistress is at the point of death. De Courcy sets off, and arrives in time to see her before her dissolution: but Zaira, who follows, is too late for that purpose, having discovered Eva to be ——— her daughter;—a discovery simultaneously made with that of her own mother; who turns out to be neither more nor less than the *Indian Squaw*, or hideous mis-shapen hag, of the first adventure in the tale!—To narrate these events in any greater fullness would exceed our limits; to explain them, probably, would puzzle the ingenuity of the author. How the mother of Zaira, who was so beautiful in youth, should grow into a miserable second-hand Bartholomew-Fair Meg Merrilies, in her old age, is left to all-powerful imagination; and we have only space to add to this portion of our article that *Zaira is still living*; that we have the concise epitaph of Charles De Courcy; and that Eva quits a scene for which she was always much too ætherial. "Peace to her Manes!"

It may, indeed, be easy to discover the original cause, the *raison suffisante*, of many of the author's unsuccessful attempts. They are to be traced to the great success of some late *Scotish* novels; and in them we see the foundation not only of Zaira's *Irish-gypsey* mother, but of the general endeavour to delineate the harsh features of Calvinism. Mac Owen is but the faint echo of M'somebody, whose name we forget, but whose character we well remember, in "Old Mortality." A fatal snare is laid for the efforts of inferior genius, by these bold and happy portraits of a first-rate master.

We

We would by no means deny considerable power to Mr. Maturin, as far as that power may be seen in the variety of his materials, although not in the accuracy of his knowlege; and in the rapidity, although not in the elegance, of his movements, as the historian of fictitious events. His pervading faults are too great suddenness of change in character, and too coarse a daubing of colours thrown over all his descriptions. His story is thus rendered improbable; and his language is debased by the grossest licence of construction and indistinctness of phraseology. His classical learning, also, is of the common kind, although manifestly dragged in for purposes of display; and, we are convinced, by several plain indications, that he has not a sufficient reverence for the great names of poetical antiquity. "*Damnant quod non intelligunt*" is the real clue to many modern opinions on this subject.

We proceed to specify some of the numerous defects to which we have alluded; though our specification must be scanty indeed, compared with the demand for censure. We shall intermingle the passages of which we approve.

At page 122. of Vol. I. is one of those violations of propriety, from which a well-educated reader will turn with disgust. The passage begins with the words 'undraped figures," &c. &c.; and this is all that we chuse to say on the point. So also of the allusion at pages 87, 88. Vol. I.; and still more of that at page 32. Vol. III. One of the most offensive faults in the work is the frequent repetition of the same terms in a description, or the same cast of sentiment, *on the most particular occasions*, in wholly different characters. Thus both Zaira and Eva observe that '*God is Love*;' (see also pages 139. and 152. Vol. III.;) and in many other unlikely matters these "*extremes meet*," as the author would contend, naturally enough, but, in our minds, much the reverse. Mr. M. himself, indeed, is one of these irreconcileable contrasts; for he, who, in the case of Eva and her Calvinistic circle, has endeavoured to discountenance the excesses of enthusiasm, runs into the wildest species of Methodism in the case of Zaira's struggles for conversion, without allowing his heroine to be mad. The whole of that scene, and of Zaira's subsequent reasonings on suicide, and farcically solemn preparations for that event, are in excessively bad taste; intending to be sublime, they are ludicrously bombastic. The character and class of this writer are appropriately and briefly designated by Horace; "*Professus grandia*, turget."

Still worse, if worse could be, we should deem that want of judgement and propriety which could leave unanswered the arguments of Cardonneau, a French atheistical philosopher, who does the rational and learned Zaira much harm; the author thus exposing the ignorant, a large portion of whom belong to the genus of novel-readers, to the chance of imbibing the bane of doubt, without the antidote of conviction. — To return to Horace. Some remarks on this poet introduce a general condemnation of the antients, as devoid of feeling for the enjoyments of music and of memory! *Dii boni!* 'of music and of memory!'—and with the Grecian fables of the wonders wrought by music before his eyes, with the Orpheus of Virgil, and the charming allusions of this and of numberless other writers of the golden age of poetry, whether in Greece or Rome, — with the well known eulogy on music in the Medea, — how could Mr. M. dare to make such an assertion!!

"*Carmine Dii superi placantur, carmine Manes:*"

but whether any scholar will forgive this ignorant attack on his favourites, we cannot pretend to say; and we doubt whether the author himself, when he reflects some years hence on this and on much more important blemishes in his '*Women,*' will be able to say with Martial,

——— "*Hoc est*
Vivere bis, vitâ posse priore frui."

Among these *unclassical* mistakes, we scarcely know whether it be worth while to mention one of a very different nature; namely, that a poem by Mr. Coleridge is attributed to Mr. Wordsworth! If the author indeed had better taste, we might suppose him to reply, "*All's one for that!*"

"*Qui Bavium non odit, amet tua carmina, Mævi!*"

Who hates not Coleridge, Wordsworth may endure.

Mr. Maturin also makes his beautiful blue-stocking, Zaira, assert that the antients do not mention moon-light in their writings!—and, instead of quoting in answer the end of the eighth book of the Iliad, or the "*cœlo fulgebat Luna sereno*" of Horace, he talks of the "*Diffugêre nives*" of that poet; an ode which contains nothing but a general and *philosophical* reference to the moon; without attempting or thinking of any *picturesque* beauty in the passage,

"*Damna tamen celeres reparant cœlestia Lunæ.*"

In the same unfortunate scene, this aukward and superficial citer of the classics (who come at his call, like powerful ghosts, to overwhelm a feeble but audacious magician) talks of

of his heroine tracing a subject from Horace to Ovid!—nearly such a range as she might have taken from Dryden to Otway —who lived at the same time, and at opposite sides of the same street. "Here lives John Dryden," &c.

We turn with pleasure to a pretty little description of the school that was formed and managed by Eva. The *dramatis personæ* are Montgomery, De Courcy, Eva, and children:

'To the school they went, but that was not the place to develope De Courcy's heart. Eva was indeed there, with dishevelled hair, flushed cheek, and busy finger, pointing out lessons, and cutting out work for her little scholars, whose eyes, and fingers, and tongues, moving all in concert with hers, and all directed to her, mingled the singular appearance of eager intelligence with that of automatal mechanism. To Montgomery she appeared like our first mother, binding up the straggling and decaying groupes of flowers, and teaching them to bloom (Montgomery added mentally) unto life eternal.—To De Courcy she appeared—very unlike Zaira.

'The business of clothing, teaching to work, and instructing to read, sounds beautiful and sublime in reading and theory, particularly when a beautiful girl, not fifteen, is the *maitresse*, and ten little orphans are half of them on her lap, and half of them at her feet; but the detail—the detail—no one but Eva herself could have patience with them—De Courcy certainly could not.—Their dullness, their blunders, their stitches, taken horizontally, perpendicularly, diagonally, when they should have been taken in any and every other direction—their horrible confusion of the most sacred names in their religious lessons,—appalling to Eva's ears, revolting to Montgomery's, and ludicrous to De Courcy's—their dirty hair, nails, stockings, and skirts of stuff-frocks, for which they were gently and vainly rebuked by Eva, while they gazed at her with stupid eyes, fixed immoveably on the spotless white of her drapery—their looks speaking the concentrated spirit of childish envy, without a wish or thought of imitation—their *Babel of brogues*, where the drawling Munster accent was holding vain and perpetual war with the angular and exalted cadence of the North —All this, and more, and worse than all this—worse than "fables yet have feigned, or fear conceived"—worse than could be imagined except by Eva, or some one in her situation, burst all at once on De Courcy's eyes, ears, and other senses. "Can a woman be more delightfully employed?" said Montgomery, as they retired.

'De Courcy said, "Certainly not."—But he thought she might, more delightfully for himself at least—a kind of refined selfishness had been stealing over him since his first acquaintance with Zaira.'

Yet this said Zaira is represented as every thing that is virtuous and sublime; as charitable in the midst of luxury, and self-denying amid all the temptations to enjoyment. She is,

is, in a word, a Platonist in a theatre; as Eva is a nun, out of a nunnery.

We meet with passages in a letter from a Mr. Asgill, (whose character is the most sensible *sketch* in the book,) which we read with equal surprize and displeasure. We cannot conceive how Mr. Maturin, as the countryman of Miss O'Neil, whose virtues are the groundwork and the glory of her talents, can have brought himself to pronounce such a sweeping condemnation of the characters of actresses. If he should say, "These are only arguments in the mouth of an advocate against an imprudent marriage," he who has been so unusually connected with the stage should have taken some opportunity to counteract, or to modify, the unmitigated censure of his very wisest and best character, passed on a profession which has produced, and is producing, many of the fairest ornaments of domestic life, as well as those who form the delight of the public.

Among the grosser improbabilities of incident, we may mention the dream of Eva that she sees Zaira and De Courcy on a hill together, and that her lover tramples on her as he is getting into a carriage; — a dream that takes place at the very same time at which De Courcy fancies that he sees, with his eyes open, and broad-awake, exactly the same objects. This is not the only instance of such grotesque absurdity in these volumes. The delirious dreams of several of the sick persons are really too mad for pleasant perusal; and how any author can delight in this anatomical exhibition of human ravings, we are at a loss to conceive. People familiarly fancying themselves in Hell, and other horrors of this nature, ought not to be tolerated in the literature of a civilized nation. Indeed, a very indecent because a very familiar use, and on the most worldly occasions, is made of the texts of Scripture throughout the present work; — and on this subject we observe also a curious mistake; to which we advance; hoping that a hint will be sufficient for a clergyman on such a matter as the foregoing. How *could* he relate the anecdote at pages 58, 59. of Vol. III.? Eva, and Mrs. Wentworth, her aunt, are described as shocked by the frequent use of the name of the Deity in Milton: yet it seems not only unlikely but out of the question that any Calvinistic hearers should be so shocked: — familiarity with the awful name of the Creator, and with his attributes, seeming to be one of the first characteristics of that coarse mode of religion which is properly called Calvinism.

At page 127. of Vol. II., Eva at length is led into a most engaging confession of her love for De Courcy: but the insensible

sensible wretch makes no return! — and from this moment it is impossible to care what becomes of him.

We shall present the reader with another scene or two from this extraordinary farrago.

De Courcy has been to the theatre, where his delight in witnessing the dramatic powers of Zaira has been greatly interrupted by the *loud whispers and pointings* which marked him out as her future husband. — As he rambles through the streets, he finds himself opposite to the Evangelical Meeting House; and, seeing lights in the windows, he remembered that he had heard from Eva that she intended to be there that evening, to assist at the rehearsal of some sacred music, which was to be performed on the next day, accompanied by a sermon, for the relief of widows and orphans, &c.

'Thus the same sentiments led Zaira to the theatre, and Eva to the place of worship. They were both exercising their talents for the purpose of benevolence; but this unity of object was the only thing in which they agreed. Which of them was best employed? Or was not *habit* the only difference between them? Charles could not answer these questions, but his feelings were touched by the contrast.

'He entered the meeting-house; the congregation had dispersed (all but the private singers, who remained to practise;) the lights, too, except a very few near the organ, where the singers stood, were all extinguished, so that the building was very dark. Round the organ there was a strong blaze of light, stronger from the contrast. Charles could see all the figures distinctly, though quite invisible to them from the darkness that filled the body of the chapel. They sung some hymns, and their solemn quiet harmony, *without applause*, the echoes dying through the empty aisles, soothed and solemnized him. It was like a fine twilight after a burning day.

'De Courcy felt as if his musical perceptions and his sensibility of nature were delightfully mingled. He felt this music to be like "the pleasant time, the cool, the silent." The music suddenly changed; they sung the Hallelujah chorus from the Messiah. The solemnity of the well-selected words, — the sublimity of the harmony, — the awful repetition of the sounds, "for ever and ever — Hallelujah! Hallelujah!" forcing the idea of eternity on the mind by their endless recurrence, thrilled through De Courcy's heart. And when the sweet and powerful voice of Eva, sustaining the upper part, dwelt on the ascending notes, repeating, "King of Kings, and Lord of Lords;" while all the other parts continued the ceaseless, solemn iteration, "for ever, and ever," De Courcy felt as if he listened to the songs of angels.

'There was nothing round him to disturb or divide the impression on his senses or his mind; — no crowds, no bravo's, no glare of lights, no stifling and yet intoxicating heat. He was alone almost in darkness, and the figures so far above him, the light falling on them alone, and the unearthly music, exalted him for some moments

moments beyond himself. He saw Eva separated from him high in a region of light and harmony, uttering in these awful words a last farewell, and returning to that God from whom her rash and unhappy love had divided her for a season.

'"Am I then losing her?" he exclaimed, with horror.

'"For ever and ever," repeated the voices,—"*For ever and ever!*"

'The lights swam before his eyes. He retired to a remoter part of the chapel, and, kneeling on the ground, prayed to Almighty God, to enlighten his understanding, and to touch his heart; and enable him, in this awful crisis of his life, to refuse the evil, and choose the good. Alas! he did not know, that when we implore God to search our hearts, it is because we dread to search them ourselves. He prayed fervently, indeed, and wept; but when we make our imagination the interpreter between the Deity and us, its oracles are not always infallible. He prayed that his passions might be subdued; but perhaps, like St. Augustine, he wished that his prayers might not be heard too soon.'

We think it will be allowed that much of this description manifests a force and a pathos, which deserved a better conclusion than a stale joke about St. Augustine; and that it would have been well if the *humorous* idea (for such only can we call it) of the frequent repetitions of the chorus '*forcing the idea of eternity upon the mind*' had been omitted.

Now that we touch on the point of humour, we are bound to confess that Mr. Maturin seems to excel greatly, and even with national felicity, in this truly Irish qualification; and we shall specify some of his luckiest hits, in this manner.

Mr. Wentworth's Carriage.

'The Wentworths kept a *plain brown carriage*' (to match the *brown-papered* room, we suppose,) 'drawn by two sleek horses; they advertised for a *serious* coachman, and they had got one, a very grave man, who had been converted, *secundum artem*, years before; and for the horses, they knew their way to Bethesda, without a driver.'

The Christianity of Mac Owen.

'Mac Owen had been pressing the new convert (a man of gigantic size, who is called the *babe*, in allusion to his conversion,) for a test of his faith; for he had no idea of a man's having any religion unless he could specify it under a particular denomination, and signify his creed by a kind of free-masonic sign, technical and decisive. This the convert refused, it seems; and as the young men came in, he was bellowing, with a cup of tea in his hand, which he was spilling in the trepidation of his rage,—"No, Sir—no, Sir—never, never. I will neither be Catholic or Protestant, Arminian or Calvinist."

'"*Don't put Arminian first,*" said Mr. Wentworth.

'He went on.—"Neither Trinitarian or Arian—neither Universalist or Particularist. No, Sir.—Sir, I will be a Christian.—Yes,

Yes, I will be a Christian, (foaming with passion.) I will — I will be a Christian." And his voice was actually a roar, and he thumped the table in the fury of his vociferation and the eagerness of his orthodoxy.

' " Good God!" said De Courcy to himself.'

De Courcy and Montgomery had been present at this well-imagined scene.

The Christianity of Mr. Wentworth.

' " I will stay, said Eva, to convince you that my fears are not artificial," (fears excited by a thunder-storm,) " and that I never yielded to them without the utmost struggle I was capable of."

' She was interrupted by Mr. Wentworth's loud, harsh, untuneable voice, " crooning" over some lines of Watts, *proper to be recited during a thunder-storm:* —

" We shout to hear thy thunders roll,
And echo to our father's voice."

— And, as he was shouting in loud echo, leaning magnanimously against the window, a strong flash of lightning struck directly across his sight, and, clapping his hands before his eyes, with an exclamation little short of profane, he hurried out of the room.'

We could select a passage in which Mrs. Wentworth, who is generally represented as very superior to the beings around her, addresses De Courcy with a violence and a venom which are wholly of this earth: but we had rather turn to a lively and diverting scene in which Lady Longwood, a heartless fashionable, is described as *pushing* the very moderate musical talents of her daughter Honoria, at a party at which Zaira sings. When they have sung a duet together, her ladyship thus " runs riot" on some goodnatured expressions of Zaira:

' " Oh, my dear, dear Madame Dalmatiani!" said Lady Longwood, catching both her hands with eager delight, " how you do enchant me! Could I have imagined my poor timid Honoria would have obtained such flattering applause — and from you?"

' Zaira looked at her for a moment with silent amazement, and then recollected herself enough to praise Honoria as much as her conscience would let her. But her own thoughts were quite enough for Lady Longwood; and she glided away to repeat to her wondering, weary, incredulous audience Zaira's raptures about her poor Honoria.

' " Dear creature," said she, throwing her arm on Honoria's bare broad shoulders in a fine *Sevigné* style, " how timid she is! — these praises quite overpower her — I feel her little heart beating so this moment."

' " Oh, mamma!" cried the timid Honoria, twisting herself in no graceful attitude from under the fostering arm, " that odious bracelet of yours; it has torn my neck, and now you have got it entangled in my hair."

' And,

'And, lo! as Honoria spoke, her mother's arm was too hastily withdrawn, and suspended to it hung an exquisitely turned ringlet, that had been carelessly, too carelessly it seems, twisted among the artificial flowers, and was — as artificial as they. Lady Longwood, "no whit dismayed," joined another circle; and hiding her involuntary "rape of the lock" in her ridicule, canvassed so successfully, that she was deputed to wait on Zaira with the entreaties for one more delightful air, which was to conclude the happiest evening they had ever passed.'

This may be somewhat highly coloured: but it is a tolerably just picture of the frivolity, forwardness, and affectation of too many such scenes in real life; especially in that sort of mixed and second-hand circle of gentility which is here described.

We would gladly leave as favourable an impression as justice will permit, on the minds of our novel-reading friends, with regard to Mr. Maturin's abilities for success in this department, — which, if he will take more pains, and "*behave* a little more *distinctly*" in future, is not impossible; and we therefore close our citations with a part of Eva's dying addresses to her relatives. If the conduct of this young lady had been as rational, and as consistent with her religious principles, as some of these last sayings are pious and sensible, we should not have complained of the want of active contrast to the figures of false religion with which the book abounds. Let the author, however, make what atonement he can for this defect; and let us try to forget the sudden and unnatural intrusion of the retired and *nunnish* Eva at a fashionable toilet, a fashionable dinner-party, and a crowded theatre, in the calm, and dignified, and truly Christian advice contained in the following passage:

'"My dear uncle," said the dying Christian; "the language of man is as 'the dust of the balance' to me now. Reality, reality is dealing with me. I am on the verge of the grave, and all the wretched distinctions that have kept men at war for centuries seem to me as nothing. I know that 'salvation is of grace through faith,' and, knowing that, I am satisfied. Oh, my dear uncle, I am fast approaching that place where there is neither 'Jew or Greek, barbarian or Scythian, bond*man* or free, but Christ is all, and in all.' Speak no more of points which I cannot understand; but feel with me that the religion of Christ is a religion of the soul — that its various denominations (which I have heard so often discussed, and with so little profit,) are of light avail, compared with its vital predominance over our hearts and lives. I call," said she, collecting her hollow voice to utter the words strongly, — "I call two awful witnesses to my appeal — the hour of death and the day of judgment — they are witnesses against all the souls that live. Oh, my dear, dear uncle, how will you

you stand their testimony? You have heard much of the language of religion, but I fear you have yet to learn its power." She paused; for, dim as her eyes were hourly growing, she could see the tears running fast down Wentworth's rugged cheeks.'

It was our intention to point out many of the faults of language which vitiate the style of these volumes: but we must here terminate our critique, for several sufficient reasons.—We shall only observe that many whole paragraphs, exceeding the Johnsonian *triads* in number as much as they fall beneath them in energy, are more like *lists* or *inventories* of detached particulars than connected sentences; that, besides many similar faults, '*would*' is substituted for '*should*' throughout the work; that some few of the *would-be* learned quotations are as incorrectly given as the following,

"*Moriens dulces* reminiscitur Argos",

where any classical ear will readily discover the different cadence and delicacy from those of the original; and that a beautiful little passage from Burns is made perfect nonsense by reading

"Never met *and* never parted."

Still, it would be unjust to conclude without acknowledging that this novel, in spite of all its glaring defects, is capable of *amusing* an idle hour, though we cannot discern any human *profit* likely to accrue from it.—We should add that it exhibits a Madame St. Maur, a Frenchwoman *à toute outrance*; yet, notwithstanding this universal sin of overcharging the colours of character, (a vice perhaps borrowed from stage-practice,) Madame St. Maur is one of the best supported personages in this prolonged exhibition of three tomes of romance.

Art. VII. *Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa*, by Edward Daniel Clarke, LL.D. (Vol. III.) Part II. Greece, Egypt, and the Holy Land; Section II. 4to. pp. 822. 4l. 14s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa, by Edward Daniel Clarke, LL.D. (Vol. IV.) Part the Second; Greece, Egypt, and the Holy Land. Section the Third. To which is added a Supplement respecting the Author's Journey from Constantinople to Vienna, containing his Account of the Gold Mines of Transylvania and Hungary. 4to. pp. 755. 4l. 14s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Having followed Dr. Clarke in his successive peregrinations through Russia, Egypt, and Palestine, we now take up the pen to report the third and fourth volumes of his work.

work. In his third, which, ponderous as it is, he calls a 'section,' we have an account of a second visit to Egypt; of a survey of part of the Grecian Archipelago; of Athens; and, finally, of the eastern part of the Peloponnesus. Vol. IV. (also a Section!) is appropriated to the central and northern part of Greece, with that portion of Turkey and Hungary which comes under the eye of a traveller proceeding from Constantinople to Vienna. This volume is by much the more interesting of the two, and it shall therefore occupy a larger portion of our pages.

Our report of the second volume of Dr. C.'s travels closed (M.R. vol. lxix.) with his return from Jerusalem to Acre: the third begins by relating the circumstances of his passage from Acre to Egypt in the autumn of 1801; after which he gives an account of a voyage up the Nile to Cairo; of Cairo itself; of the Pyramids; of the voyage down from Cairo to Rosetta, and from Rosetta to Alexandria. Descriptions of Egypt have lately been so frequent, that we are little disposed to enlarge on this part of the work, and prefer to accompany Dr. C. in his survey of Greece. From Alexandria he proceeded to Cos, the well-known birth-place of Hippocrates, and visited successively the islands of Patmos, Paros, and Naxos. At Patmos, he made a valuable literary purchase from the monks; and at Paros he had an opportunity of observing the marble quarries, as well as surveying the celebrated grotto in the adjacent island of Antiparos. Naxos is better peopled than either, containing about 18,000 inhabitants. He visited also some smaller islands; and, though much embarrassed by the deficient skill of his nautical conductors, he reached the shore of Attica, and landed at the Piræus. Here he enters on an account of Athens, but abstains from dwelling on monuments already described, and confines himself to matters that are new in point of discovery or of observation. His remarks at this period of his journey relate chiefly to the Parthenon, the Pnyx, the Arch of Adrian, and the Odéum of Regilla.

Leaving Athens for an interval, Dr. Clarke and his fellow-traveller, Mr. Cripps, proceeded by sea to the opposite coast of Argolis; a passage in which, short as it was, they experienced considerable annoyance from the ignorance of their Greek pilot. Landing near the site of the antient Epidaurus, they first directed their course to the Hieron, or ruins of the temple of Esculapius, a spot of considerable interest on account of the existing remains of antiquity. They next visited Nauplia, (the Napoli di Romania of ordinary maps,) a town remarkable for its secure harbour, but subject to an unhealthy atmosphere

atmosphere. Proceeding to the northward, they saw the ruins of the antient city of Tirynthus, and admired the massy architecture known by the name of Cyclopean, which consists of vast masses of stone erected above each other without cement, and apparently bidding defiance to the ravages of time. This is the architecture both of the walls of the citadel of Mycenæ, and of that large sepulchral mound to which has been given the name of the tomb of Agamemnon. At Argos, Dr. Clarke found little to reward his inquiries, and Nemea did not present any thing more interesting. Sicyon is attractive as well by its ruins as by the prospect enjoyed from its elevated position; a prospect, however, greatly inferior to the extensive and delightful view from the citadel of Corinth. There, a number of interesting objects — Parnassus, Helicon, and Cithæron; — Athens and its Parthenon; — and in another direction, the mountains of the Peloponnesus; — all lie extended before the spectator, and seem almost to justify the enthusiastic exclamation of Wheeler, "that it is the most agreeable prospect this world can give."

Attacks of fever having prevented Dr. C. from penetrating into Arcadia and Laconia, although satisfied that, as far as the inhabitants were regarded, no danger would have been incurred, the remainder of Vol. III. is occupied with his return to Attica. He was fortunate enough to discover ruins near the port of Schænus, on the southern shore of the isthmus of Corinth; and he is of opinion that they can be no others than those of the Isthmian town, the scene of the celebrated games. He also recognized here a theatre, a stadium, and the remains of a temple of Neptune. Here, however, ends Dr. C.'s survey of the Morea; which, though extended with his usual diffuseness over a great number of pages, is evidently a very limited and partial report; presenting nothing like the stock of facts contained in Sir W. Gell's Itinerary *, or in Vaudoncourt's late publication. †

At Megara, Dr. C. did not find any ruins worth notice, but Eleusis possesses the vestiges of two temples, one of Ceres, another of Neptune; together with several arches of an aqueduct, and part of a paved road. We have here an interesting account of the plan adopted to remove a statue of Ceres that had long been allowed to lie on the ground: our travellers succeeded, with very slender means, in getting this massy relic conveyed to Athens: but the ultimate result,

* See Rev. Vol. lxv. N.S. p. 371.
† See Rev. Vol. lxxxiii. p. 225.

as some of the superstitious inhabitants predicted on the spot, was unfortunate, the vessel on board of which it was embarked being wrecked off the coast of England.

Dr. C. now came back to Athens, and was there at the time when Lord Elgin's agents were committing their architectural depredations: he joins cordially in censuring a conduct which is said to have drawn on us much odium on the part of foreigners; and he notices, in affecting terms, the distress of the Disdar or governor of the citadel, when obliged to witness the spoliation of the Parthenon. One of the Metopes was raised from its station between the Triglyphs: but the workmen, endeavouring to give it a position adapted to the projecting line of descent, loosened a part of the adjoining masonry, and down came the fine masses of Pentelican marble, scattering their white fragments among the ruins. The Disdar could no longer restrain himself; he shed a tear and exclaimed Τέλος! positively declaring that nothing should induce him to consent to any farther dilapidation of the building. He had not, however, the power or the firmness to adhere to his resolution; he was poor, and had a family to support; so that a present in money, and splendid promises, induced him to allow all the finest pieces of sculpture belonging to the Parthenon to be taken down.

The Appendix to Vol. III. contains some observations on Acre and Djezzar Pacha, from the MS. journal of the late Colonel Squire, an officer in our engineer-service. It has likewise a catalogue of books printed in modern Greek at Venice for circulation in Greece: of which an extra proportion are theological. The Appendix concludes with a comparative statement of the temperature in England, and in the countries visited by the author. — In point of ornaments, this volume, though not quite so rich as its predecessors, is by no means deficient: the principal engravings are a view of Pompey's pillar near Alexandria; the obelisk of Heliopolis near Cairo; the Parthenon at Athens; and the remains of the temple of Jupiter Olympius in that city: with others of considerable interest, such as (p. 136.) the entrance to one of the pyramids, and (p. 286.) the catacombs of Necropolis at Alexandria.

We are now to forsake the beaten ground of Athens, and to accompany Dr. C. in his farther peregrinations, first to the central and northern part of Greece, and subsequently to Constantinople and Hungary. Without finding more to commend in point of composition in this than in other divisions of his labours, it would be unfair to withhold from his final volume the praise of very considerable interest on the score

of

of information. Dr. C. was stimulated to active inquiry in one part of this journey by a predilection for the scenes of memorable events; while, in the conclusion of his tour, we mean when traversing Hungary, he was fortunate enough to procure information, particularly with regard to the mines, of a more explicit and accurate nature than that which falls to the lot of ordinary travellers.

The provinces of Greece described in Vol. IV. are Attica, Bœotia, Phocis, Thessaly, and part of Macedon. We were tempted to begin our extracts with a passage relative to a very interesting tract of country on the borders of Attica and Bœotia, which Dr. C. considers as the antient *Plain of Tanagra*, and where he also obtained a number of antient medals: but we must proceed to the *scene of Grecian battles*.

Platæa. — To the south of Thebes, at a distance of about six miles, (or two hours,) stands the village of Platæna, near to which is the source of the Asopus; a stream dignified by Greek writers with the name of a river, but which is more properly a winter-torrent, its channel being in summer either totally dry or so slightly filled as to escape the notice of the passing traveller. When on this spot, Dr. C. was near the scene of the celebrated battle of Platæa, and was soon enabled to correct the very erroneous description of the localities published by Abbé Barthélémy; who, with the usual credulity of a Frenchman, has deduced the Asopus by two imaginary channels through an imaginary valley. The peasants have still a tradition of a great battle having been fought here in some former age; and they profess to have ascertained the place where the conflict was hottest, by its greater comparative fertility, and by various pieces of iron, lead, and other relics which they still occasionally find on the spot. The vicinity of lofty mountains makes this district subject to falls of snow; and, on the morning after Dr. C. had slept there, the ground was clothed with a milk-white covering, as if to confirm the accuracy of Thucydides: who relates that a great quantity of snow fell in the memorable night when the Platæans left their city and fled to Athens, after having first taken the road to Thebes in order to deceive their besiegers.

Leuctra and Pharsalia. — Dr. C. makes no attempt to describe these celebrated battles, but visited the ruins of the towns adjacent to both. Judging from the variety of monuments still remaining in the shape of temples, walls, and fragments of marble, Leuctra must have been a considerable place; and of the identity of the site it seems not reasonable to doubt, the inhabitants still calling the place by the name of *Lefira*, or *Lefca*. In the plain of Pharsalia, the scene of

action, though now overgrown with cotton, is still indicated by a *tumulus*, and is placed beyond uncertainty by the course of the river Enipeus, between which and the town of Pharsa this decisive conflict took place. Pharsa contains nearly 2000 houses, and the ruins in its neighbourhood are called by the current name of *Palæo-castro*.

Marathon.—The village of Marathon is situated amid beautiful mountain-scenery at the distance of 20 miles from Athens, standing at the entance of a plain which extends thence to the sea, and is traversed by the rivulet Charadrus, now known by the name of Charadra, or in some parts by that of *Keynurios Potamos*, or 'New River.' The spectator, when placed on the mountain behind the village, beholds on the one hand a conspicuous tumulus raised over the Athenians who fell in this memorable battle; while, farther on, he discovers the bay in which the Persian army landed; and, close to the coast, the fatal marsh which impeded their flight and was the cause of a prodigious slaughter. Before the battle, the hostile armies were encamped at little more than a mile from each other, having probably the Charadrus between them: the loss sustained by the Greeks was chiefly in their centre, on the spot where the engagement seems to have begun, and at the distance of nearly two miles from the marsh to which the Persians were driven in their flight. This marsh is skirted by a narrow pass, running as at Thermopylæ along the base of a mountain; so that the fugitives who could not escape by the path were necessarily driven into the swamp, which, though overgrown with reeds and bulrushes, has evidently great depth both of water and mud. The tumulus or monument raised to the Athenians is 180 feet in circumference at the base, and in height nearly 30 feet. Curiosity having long been excited by the magnitude of this structure, a section of its central part was made twenty years ago: but it led to no other discovery than that of a quantity of arrow-heads formed of common flint, which, having been protected from the action of the atmosphere, are not, in spite of their great antiquity, in any degree decomposed or discoloured. To accomplish any discovery of importance, it would evidently be necessary to carry the excavation below the surface of the adjacent ground; as the weight of so vast a cone must, in the course of so many centuries, have necessarily pressed downwards whatever was deposited at its base. The neighbouring part of the plain presents the remains of two other monuments; one of which is supposed to be the *tumulus* of the Platæans, the only auxiliaries of the Athenians on this memorable day; the second, the triumphal building erected in honour

honour of Miltiades. Other parts of the plain exhibit Marathonian relics; fragments of sepulchres and architectural pillars being visible on both sides of the Charadrus, and even to the borders of the marsh.

Thebes. — The approach to Thebes was marked by the entrance of the travellers into its spacious plain; surrounded, like the plains of almost every other city of Greece, with beautiful mountain-scenery. The month was December, and the ridges of Parnassus and Helicon shone conspicuous in their snowy covering. These, says Dr. C., are the scenes for the painter and the poet; heaven and earth seemed to be brought together; and the clouds, collected in volumes of inconceivable splendour, came rolling around the bases of the mountains: — there is no example that 'in any country, uniformly flat and monophanous, like Scythia or Belgium, the fire of imagination has ever kindled.' The remains of Thebes, at least those within the walls, are very insignificant: but the mounds and ramparts recall to the spectator a forcible impression of its former grandeur.

'A very correct topography of antient *Thebes* might be composed from the traces still discernible. The situation of its *seven gates* might be ascertained: and as a beginning of this part of the work, it will be evident that the entrance, near to which these inscriptions were found, was that called, from the fountain we have mentioned, "*the Crenæan Gate.*" The city was demolished, it is true, above two thousand years ago, when *Alexander* invaded Greece: but since its restoration by *Cassander*, very little was done to it which could possibly alter the appearance of its dykes and ramparts: upon these, time has little influence; and their situation and form serve to point out the position of the gates. *Thebes* was almost a deserted village in the age of *Strabo*: but *Pausanias* says its *seven gates* remained in his time; and he has written rather a copious account of its antiquities. The present town appears to occupy little more than the site of the old *Cadmæan Acropolis*; which is the opinion of *Wheeler*, and of *Pococke*: and in the harmonious adjustment of those masses which remain, belonging to the *antient walls*, we saw enough to convince us that the story of *Amphion* was no fable; for it was a very antient custom to carry on immense labour by an accompaniment of music and singing. The custom indeed still exists both in Egypt and in Greece.' —

'The *Stadium* will doubtless be hereafter discovered, and the future knowledge of its situation will serve as a beacon guiding to the buried vestiges of the *Gymnasium* and the *Temple*. In this edifice there were *colossal statues* of *Hercules* and *Minerva* in *Pentelican marble*, the workmanship of *Alcamanes*. It is therefore almost impossible, that the antiquities enumerated by *Pausanias* can have been all removed from the ruins of a city placed at such a distance from the coast, and so remote from the military operations of the Romans after the age of the *Antonines*, and from all

those means which afforded to them a facility of ransacking the Grecian cities for works of art; neither is it likely that *Thebes* has been despoiled of its valuable remains to serve as building materials for the Turks; because there is no place near enough to render it a convenient object of resort for such a supply; and Turks are not likely to use extraordinary exertions upon any occasion of this nature. The probable conclusion therefore must be, that within the mosques, baths, and dwellings of its present inhabitants, and, above all, beneath the soil now occupied by the town and by the suburbs, many of its antiquities lie concealed from observation.'

Mount Helicon. — In crossing this far-famed mountain, Dr. C. was so fortunate as to discover the antient road or path leading from Leuctra and Thespia first to Ascra, the birth-place of Hesiod, and finally to Lebadéa on the other side of the mountain. This track being unfit for carriages, and being used only by the country-people, has gone wholly out of repair, and has become little else than a mountain-path. By following it, the travellers gradually ascended Mount Helicon, and arrived in about an hour at the little monastery of St. Nicholo, situated within a sheltered recess, and not inferior, in beauty of prospect, to the romantic retreats of Swisserland. Nothing interrupts the silence of this solitude but the humming of bees, and the sound of the water gushing from a fountain in the side of a rock. This, says Dr. C., can be no other than the fountain Aganippe, pouring its little stream into the adjacent rivulet of Permessus; while the grove formed by the surrounding mountain must be the spot appropriated, in the classic days of Greece, to the celebration of the Μουσια, or games of the Muses. Higher up the mountain, at the distance of two miles and a half from this part, is the fountain Hippocrene; and the view from this celebrated region takes in not only the greater portion of Bœotia, but Parnassus, Cithæron, and the towering summits of Eubœa. The village of Sagăra, supposed to be the antient Ascra, is situated in a deep valley, amid lofty rocks, in which are various fountains and streams. It stands on the banks of a river: but extensive ruins are not to be expected; because Ascra had ceased to be a place of population so early as the time of Pausanias. — Ascending from this village, the travellers pursued their course among stupendous rocks, and, proceeding as before by a rough and narrow passage, gained the summit of Helicon, from which the prospect is delightful; the eye ranging over the plains of Lebadéa, Chæronéa, and Orchomenus, while the mountain-scenery undulates like the swelling of the sea all the way to Parnassus. It is no small addition to the gratification of the traveller to reflect that the rustic

inhabitants of these retreats are innocent and inoffensive in their habits.

Manners of the Albanians. — It has been the policy of the Turkish government to introduce Albanians from Epirus into the southern parts of Greece, ever since a serious alarm of the revival of antient independence was excited by the co-operation of Russia. The Albanians of Epirus are in many respects different from the great body of the Greeks; but those of the central part, such as Bœotia and Phocis, are the descendants of old settlers; they speak modern Greek, like the inhabitants of the towns, and bear a much more civilized character than the immediate subjects of Ali Pacha. Dr. C. gives an account (p. 80.) of an 'interesting conversation' with them, and of their hospitable reception of him. He perceived, he says, 'that these poor peasants are not so entirely ignorant of the antient renown of their country, or of its present resources, as might be supposed. They said, that the land they cultivated had once been tilled by a race of famous warriors; and that it would be found now, as formerly, full of heroes, if a leader were to present himself.'

'*Neocorio, near the ruins of Thespia, Dec.* 8th. — We passed the night, as we had done at *Platănă*, in the midst of *Albanians*, stretched around a hearth upon the same floor with us; their cattle occupying one half of the room, and the family the other. The same simplicity appeared in all things relating to their manner of life, — the same disinterested hospitality and cleanliness: for although the best Albanian cottage has no hole in the roof whereby the smoke from the hearth may escape, yet the walls and the floor, being covered with clay or plaister constantly swept, are so perfectly clean, that neither vermin nor dirt of any kind can be harboured; nor is there in these dwellings the same liability to contagion which exists in the divâns and couches of more lordly mansions. For the rest, the condition of the *Albanian peasantry*, who cultivate the plains of Greece, is so much the same, and their way of living so uniform, that the description of a single family may apply to the whole community. The great plains of Bœotia and Thessaly may be said to surpass every other in the world in beauty and fertility. To us the plain of *Bœotia* appeared as a vast natural garden. Yet the labouring peasants, who are all of them *Albanians*, — for the idea of industry in Greece has no other association than that of an *Albanian peasant*, — complain everywhere of oppression: and indeed the labours of the plough can hardly be considered as a peaceful occupation, in a land where the husbandmen appear in the fields armed as for battle. Such, however, seems to have been the condition of the country ever since the days of Homer: and when the traveller enters one of the houses, every thing he sees calls to mind the simplicity of manners which characterized the inhabitants of *Hellas* in the first ages of its history. The bread is always made into cakes, which are baked upon

the hearth beneath the embers and ashes: while this is preparing by the women, the men are engaged in peeling and splitting the onions to be served with it. The master of the house, after receiving his guests, takes the post of honour, by seating himself against the sacks of corn, which often occupy a considerable portion of the floor of his cottage: there he remains, issuing his orders to his family until the meal is over; when he encourages his guests to take their rest, by first setting the example, and consigning himself to sleep, without moving from the spot where he finished his repast.

Lebadéa. — This is a town of seven or 8,000 inhabitants, situated in a ravine, amid perpendicular rocks; on the summit of one of which appears an antient fortress, towering above the whole of this romantic scene. It is at the foot of this precipice that the traveller finds the *Hieron*, or cave of the far-famed oracle Trophonius, remaining to this day very nearly as described to us by old writers. The eye still marks the cavities grooved in the rock for the reception of votive offerings; the stream Hercyna still issues with great force from beneath an adjoining rock; and our anticipations are nowhere disappointed, except in one object of minor importance; viz. in finding that the passage leading to the *Adytum*, or abode of the oracle, is now choked with stones and rubbish. This opening must have been narrow at all times, since antient writers relate that the votary was obliged to lie down as if going into an oven, and to be dragged forwards by a person within the *Adytum*. The inhabitants declining to assist Dr. C. in exploring a spot still venerated by their superstition, he and his fellow-traveller, Mr. Cripps, set their own hands to the task; and they succeeded so far as to make a partial clearance, and to ascertain, by means of a pole, that the interior space was of small extent, though extremely well adapted by its obscurity to the purposes of priestcraft. The two sources of the Hercyna correspond to the antient streams of Lethe and Mnemosyne; the former being a copious body of water, rising turbid like a subterraneous river, and bearing undoubted indications of its having been exposed to the air before it sank into its underground channel. The latter is clear, fit for drinking, and issues from the side of the Adytum.

'There was something in the nature of the scenery here, which tended to excite the solemn impressions that were essential to the purposes of priestcraft. The votaries of the Oracle were conducted through a *grove* to the *Hieron*: having reached the consecrated precincts of the divinity, they could not avoid being struck by its gloomy and imposing grandeur. It is surrounded with rocks, bare and rugged, rising in dreadful precipices to a great height, where the silence of the retirement was only interrupted

terrupted by the roaring of waters bursting with uncommon force from their cavernous abyss. The most sacred part of the *Hieron*, containing the narrow entrance to the *Adytum* and the receptacles for the *offerings*, is a perpendicular rock of black marble. It faces the east. The niches are above the *Adytum*, to the right and left of it: they are of different capacities and shapes, and amount to twelve in number. The most capacious is an entire chamber of stone, containing a *stone bench*. This, according to *Pausanias*, may have been the *throne of Mnemosyne*: it was near to the *Adytum*; where those, who came from consulting the oracle, being seated, underwent the necessary interrogatories. This chamber is five feet ten inches from the ground. The whole of it is hewn in the solid rock, like to the sepulchres of *Telmessus* in *Asia Minor*; being twelve feet eight inches in length, eleven feet three inches in width, and eight feet eight inches high. The stone bench within is eight feet nine inches long, fourteen inches wide, and eighteen inches in height. There are two niches, one on either side of the opening to this chamber; and seven others to the left of it, in the face of the rock. Immediately below the chamber, a little towards the left hand, is the *Stoma*, or *sacred aperture* of the *Adytum*.

Delphi. — Parnassus is inhabited by an industrious race, who cultivate its various ascents to a considerable height; planting vines along the declivities, and erecting walls to oppose the ravages of the mountain-torrents which are frequently caused by rain or melting snow. In the progress towards Delphi, the traveller passes a most romantic village called Crissa, evidently the antient Crissa, situated in a grove of olives, surrounded by lofty eminences, and supplied with streams of water falling in almost every direction. Another hour brought Dr. C. to Castri, a wretched village of seventy houses, quite unworthy of occupying the site of Delphi, perhaps the most extraordinary in all Greece. Here also the travellers were unsuccessful in their attempts to trace the Adytum, or recess of the oracle: but they surveyed at great leisure the Castalian fountain, the waters of which are contained in a large, square, shallow basin, with steps to it, cut in a rock of marble. Over the basin rises a perpendicular precipice of the height of 100 feet; which, being divided into two pointed crags, and towering above Delphi, have been erroneously described as the summits of Parnassus. In the face of this precipice are niches, as in the cave of Trophonius, scooped in the rock for votive offerings. The *Antrum Corycium*, or grotto of the Nymphs, lies to the north of Delphi, at a distance of several miles, and has been distinctly ascertained of late years by several of our travelling countrymen. The remains of the *Gymnasium* of Delphi are still visible, as well as those of the *Stadium*, with its marble seats, situated

situated on the highest part of the slope on which Castri is built: the length of the *Stadium* is somewhat more than 600 feet.

Castri is in a much more wretched state than the other villages on Parnassus, in consequence of a late dispute with the agents of Ali Pasha, and of the eventual imposition of an exorbitant contribution. Aracovia, a village distant several miles from Delphi, and higher up the mountain, is comparatively flourishing; containing 250 houses, inhabited by Albanians and Greeks, without a single Turk, and surrounded by vineyards in a high state of cultivation. At this elevation, a change of temperature is sensibly felt by a traveller arriving from the low country; and a farther ascent of five hours, along a difficult and precipitous road, leads to the summit of the mountain, which consists, as in Cader Idris, of a small plain in the bottom of a crater. Here Dr. C. found the surrounding water all frozen, and the thermometer standing at 30°, although a soft breeze blew from the west: had it come from the north, the cold in this season (December) would have been extreme at so great an elevation.

View from Parnassus.

'Having been for years in the practice of climbing mountains, the author must still confess that he never beheld any sight of the kind like that which he saw from the summit of *Parnassus*.—The *Gulph of Corinth* had long looked like an ordinary lake; and it was now reduced to a pond. Towards the north, beyond all the plains of *Thessaly*, appeared *Olympus*, with its many tops, clad in shining snow, and expanding its vast breadth distinctly to the view. The other mountains of Greece, like the surface of the ocean in a troubled calm, rose in vast heaps, according to their different altitudes; but the eye ranged over every one of them. *Helicon* was one of these; and it is certainly inferior in height to *Parnassus*. A mountain before mentioned, called *Tricălă*, in the *Morea*, made a great figure in that mountainous territory: it was covered with snow, even the lower ridges of it not being destitute. Our guides said that this mountain was near to *Patras*. We looked down upon *Achaia*, *Argolis*, *Elis*, and *Arcadia*, as upon a model.'

This celebrated mountain bears among the inhabitants of the plain the name of Lakŭra, a corruption probably of Lycorea, but is still called Parnassu by the occupants of its ridges. Its most remarkable characteristics are its insulated position and its great height.—Descending from it in a northerly direction, the travellers arrived on the next day at the ruins of Tithorea, near to which is at present a village called Velitza. These ruins are very considerable, and stand close to the foot of the mountain, the walls extending still in a sur-

a surprizing manner up a contiguous precipice. The forum, a square structure built of large masses of stone without cement, is still conspicuous; the work is less antient than the architecture of Mycenæ or Argos, and it is laid together with great evenness and regularity. — The *Palæo-castro* in the neighbourhood, called the ruins of Thiva, contains nothing but the traces of some walls almost indiscernible; every other vestige having long since made way for the plough. At three miles' distance, stands the village of Turco Chorio, on the supposed site of Elatéa. In the same quarter, also, is the town of Dadi, (pronounced Thathi,) consisting of 700 houses, built like Delphi in the form of a theatre; on an eminence near the town are ruins of some extent, supposed to be those of the Amphicléa of Pausanias.

Orchomenus. — The ruins of Orchomenus surround a village called Screpu, and correspond surprizingly with their appearance as described by Pausanias in the second century; for, at that comparatively early period, it had been destroyed by the jealousy of the neighbouring states. Parts of the walls of the Acropolis and of the mural turrets are still visible: but here, as at Lebadéa and in many other parts of Greece, the summer must be very unhealthy, the ground being swampy, and full of pools of stagnant water.

Ignorance of the Monks. — It was truly remarked by a German writer * that, in visiting Greece, we can see only Greece herself; for we must be contented to suspend the enjoyment of domestic comfort, and to be prepared for the most absurd superstition and incredible ignorance on the part of the priests, with whom travellers in general take up their abode. Dr. C. and his companions met with a curious exemplification of the inconceivable ignorance of this class of men, in the monastery of the Virgin of Jerusalem, where they lodged during the night after their visit to the summit of Parnassus.

Chæronéa. — The ruins of Chæronea are found at a village called Capranu, and consist of the remains of a temple, and of shafts of columns and marbles, with inscriptions still legible. Here, as in other cities of Greece, many more relics might be discovered by excavation, the theatre of Chæronea having been lately traced by this mode, and being now found one of the most entire throughout Greece. The κοιλον is in a perfect state, unless we suppose it to want the marble covering for the seats; it is hollowed in the rock; the *proscenium* is equally entire, and is forty-eight paces in width. The sepulchre of the Thebans who fell in the fatal battle

* Winckelmann; see M. R. vol. lxii. p. 453.

with

with Philip is still visible by a most conspicuous *tumulus*; and the plain of Chæronea, admirably fitted by its extent and open nature for the decision of a national quarrel, has been the scene of other memorable conflicts: the Bœotians having here triumphed over the Athenians a century before the fall of Grecian liberty; and Sylla having, at a subsequent date, defeated on this spot the forces of Mithridates.

Mount Oeta. — The farther progress of the travellers led them eastward from Parnassus to the lofty summits of Mount Oeta; which they descended by a succession of slopes bearing, or fully entitled to bear, the distinguishing appellation of *Kalidromos*.

'As soon as we began to descend, we were beyond measure surprised with the immensity and magnificence of the scene that opened all at once upon us. It comprehended the whole of the *Gulph of Malea*, looking like a lake in the vast depth below, commanded by the towers of *Bodonitza*, which appeared enthroned upon a conical and lofty hill among the craggy summits that were heaped close under our view, also overlooking all the plain between *Mount Œta* and the sea. Every part of this fine prospect has been ennobled by the genius of *Sophocles*, who adapted his tragedy of the *Trachiniæ* entirely to the scenery here. He has even enumerated the particular *trees* found upon this summit of *Œta*, and makes *Hercules* select them for his *funeral pile*; — the *oak*, the *wild olive*, and the *pine-tree*. He also alludes to a species of *bird*, which now inhabits these groves. We were therefore viewing the very objects which inspired the poet with the design of his play. Upon the right, the *Cenæan* Promontory of *Eubœa* projected into the middle of this fine picture, where *Hercules* set up those altars upon which he sacrificed to *Cenæan Jupiter*. Towards the left, extended, in many a wavy line and sinuous projection, the summits and shores of *Thessaly*. The sun was setting: and as deeper shadows began to curtain the many tints which enlivened the distant objects, we had the further gratification of seeing the full moon rise in all her splendor, to give new beauties to this indescribable scene. We remained for some time fixed to the spot, gazing with fresh wonder, at every instant. It possessed more than any effect of transparent painting can possibly represent, because the hues and the lights and the shadows varied at every moment. At last the sea appeared of a rich blue colour, somewhat darker than the sky, which was also blue. The higher mountains of *Thessaly* had the most vivid dies: upon some of their tops the parting rays of the sun left streaks of an intense colour, and of a dazzling brightness. Presently, all the surface of the gulph shone with the reflected beams of the moon, as if it had been a flood of liquid silver.'

Dr. Clarke is very minute in his account of the pass of Thermopylæ: but we omit it, in consideration of the ample notice already given of that memorable spot in our report of

Dr. Holland's Travels. (M. R. July, 1816.) A similar reason induces us to refrain from quoting the description of Larissa; and to proceed at once to that celebrated vale which has so often occupied the imagination of poets, and which of late years has attracted the curiosity of various travellers, without being accurately ascertained by any one until we were favoured with the researches of Dr. C., or rather of two subsequent observers, connected, like him, with the University of Cambridge.

Tempe. — On descending from Ampelakia, an hour's ride brings the traveller to the *defile* of Tempe below the junction of the Penéus and Eurotos, or Eurotas. It is here so narrow that the river fills the whole of it, except a pass along the right bank, which is occupied by the old paved causeway of the military road. 'Here,' says Dr. C., 'the scenery possesses the utmost grandeur. The precipices consist of naked perpendicular rocks, rising to a prodigious height; so that the spectator can scarce behold them from below without giddiness. Livy's description, therefore, in addition to its intrinsic grandeur, has all the majesty of truth. "*Rupes utrinque ita abscisæ sunt, ut despici vix sine vertigine quadam simul oculorum animique possit. Terret et sonitus et altitudo per medium vallem fluentis Penei amnis.*"' This extraordinary defile is an opening between the heights of Olympus to the west and of Ossa to the east, and extends about five miles in the whole of its length. In the romantic spot described in the extract, Dr. C. discovered a Latin inscription, explaining that it was L. Cassius Longinus who erected the fortification of which the ruins are still apparent; and a succeeding traveller, Mr. Walpole, observed in Cæsar's Commentaries (book iii.) the remarkable passage, "*L. Cassium Longinum in Thessaliam misit Cæsar.*" Mr. Walpole and Professor Palmer of Cambridge were also so fortunate as to remove the doubts that have so long existed with regard to the application to so terrific a spot of the softly flowing epithets of *Nemorosa*, *Umbrosa*, *Opaca*; a discovery that will be best explained by the following interesting extract from Mr. Walpole's MS. journal:

'"In order to understand clearly what the antients have said concerning Tempe, it is necessary to keep in mind, that there are two distinct places, having distinct characters of scenery belonging to them; — the *Defile* of Tempe; and the *Valley* of Tempe.

'"I shall begin with the first. — The river Peneus flows for three or four miles through a gorge between the mountains Olympus and Ossa, which rise on one side of it, almost perpendicularly; on the other, they afford space for a narrow road formed in the rock, running along the river side. Some of the mountains in Borrowdale by Keswick resemble those in the defile of Tempe, both

both in shape, and in their wild and barren aspect. The manner in which the rocks at Matlock rise from the border of the river reminds us of those at Tempe: but to make the resemblance more striking nothing but the grey lime-stone rocks at Matlock should be seen, divested of all the verdure with which the oak and mountain-ash adorn them; and they should rise to a greater height. The *defile* of Tempe could never have been represented by the antients as picturesque or beautiful.'—

' " Respecting the situation of the other part of Tempe, called the *Valley*, Pococke speaks in a very undecided manner. He doubts whether it lies at the south-west entrance of the defile, near Baba; or at the north-east extremity. As I passed through Tempe in December, at a time when it was impossible to judge correctly of the natural beauties of the country, I shall not speak, from my own observations, more positively concerning this celebrated valley; but shall subjoin a valuable note from the Journal of my friend Professor Palmer, who saw it in the spring of the year 1806.—

" ' May 13. 1806. After riding nearly an hour close to the Bay, we turned S. through a delightful plain, which, after a quarter of an hour, brought us to an opening between Ossa and Olympus, the entrance to a vale, which, in situation, extent, and beauty, amply satisfies whatever the poets have said of Tempe.

" ' The country being secure, we were able to view the scene from various situations. The best view is from a small hill about one mile S. from the Chân. Looking E. you have then Ossa on your right hand: on your left, a circling ridge of Olympus, clothed with wood and rich herbage, terminates in several elevations, which diminish as they approach the opening before mentioned. In the front is the Vale intersected by the Peneus; and adorned with a profusion of beauties so concentrated, as to present under one view a scene of incomparable effect.

" ' The length of the Vale measured from the station to the opening by which we entered, I estimate at three miles; its greatest breadth, at two miles and a half.

" ' Extending your view northwards, the Vale opens towards a rich plain which bounds the Bay of Salonica; high above whose waters is seen majestic Athos. This interesting feature has hitherto been unnoticed: indeed, it can only be noticed in very favourable circumstances of weather and situation of the observer.' — *MS. Journal of Professor Palmer.*

' " To this spot, then, described by *Professor Palmer*, must be applied the epithets used by the antients, when speaking of Tempe, — *nemorosa, umbrosa, viridantia,* καλά. The opinion of the Emperor Julian should not be overlooked. During his residence in Greece, he probably had visited this interesting spot. In a letter to Libanius, he places ' the Thessalian Tempe only second to the celebrated Grove and Temple of Daphne in Syria.' "

We have seen, by the preceding extract, how important it is to visit the same district at different seasons of the year; a precaution which is still more necessary with regard to the minor

minor rivers of Greece. The traveller who attempts to trace them, with the works of an antient geographer in his hand, will find, after the annual rains or the melting of the snow, a search for a single stream repaid by half-a-dozen; while, during the dry season, he may have difficulty in meeting with any thing corresponding to his expectation or to antient description.

Ampelakia (pronounced *Ambelakia*, the Greeks pronouncing μπ like mb) is the name of one of the most remarkable villages or towns in the Turkish dominions. It has been cursorily noticed by Dr. Holland and other travellers, but by none so circumstantially as by Dr. Clarke:

'Situate in the most secluded spot of the whole empire, and where no one would look for the haunts of active industry, it carries on an extensive commerce, the effects of which were once severely felt by our own manufacturers in Britain. — All the heights around it are covered with vineyards, and its wine is the best flavoured of any that we tasted in Greece. It is of a red colour, and resembles Claret. The town consists of four hundred houses, as it were hanging upon this side of *Mount Ossa*, above the Pass of *Tempe*: it contains no Turkish inhabitants, and enjoys a state of freedom, forcibly contrasted with the condition of other places, in the same neighbourhood, although not exempted from imposts. We might almost have imagined ourselves to be in Germany. The inhabitants are many of them from that country; and they are a thriving, healthy-looking people. They wear the eastern dress; but they have introduced many foreign manners and customs among those of Greece. Some German merchants, upon our arrival, sent to us the last Frankfort Gazettes; and soon afterwards they paid us a visit. As we intended to pass the night here, we accompanied them to see their staple manufactory for dying cotton thread of a red colour, which not only supports and enriches the inhabitants, but has given rise to a commerce so considerable that whole caravans are laden with this cotton for the markets of *Pest*, *Vienna*, *Leipsic*, *Dresden*, &c.; and hardly a day passes without some exports being made, which are carried even to *Hamburgh*. The fabric for dyeing the cotton, however, causes such a consumption of wood, that it will make a sad havoc among the natural beauties of the *Vale of Tempe*. —

'The whole population of *Ampelâkia*, amounting to four thousand souls, including even the children, is occupied in the preparation of this single article of commerce; the males in dyeing the wool, and the females in spinning the thread. A delightful picture of industry is thereby exhibited; and the happy effects of active employment, in a land otherwise oppressed by a general stagnation of its energies, is remarkably conspicuous, in the health, in the cheerfulness, and in the good feeling to which industry always conduces. Spindles only are used in making the thread: there is not a spinning-wheel in the place.'

Antient

Antient Medals.—One of the most gratifying circumstances to the traveller who surveys Greece is the frequent occurrence of medals for sale, particularly when a heavy rain has laid open the channels of the rivulets which traverse the sites of antient towns. It is an additional satisfaction that hitherto very few impositions have been practised in the sale of these relics; the fact being that the prices given by our countrymen have been much too low to make fraudulent imitation a gainful traffic. Dr. C. was accustomed to pay only a penny for a bronze medal, and half a crown for a silver one; a price at which he reaped an ample harvest in the neighbourhood of *Tanagra*. He was so fortunate, likewise, as to pick up some medals at the village of *Neocorio*, near the supposed site of Thespiæ; a circumstance of much less importance with regard to the value of the medals, than as determining the spot in question to have been the site of an antient town. He embraces this occasion to impress on travellers the propriety of noticing, with the utmost care, the particular symbols which predominate on gems and medals found in certain situations, before these curious relics become indiscriminately mixed and classed according to the closet-theories of untravelled antiquaries. The most ample collection of this kind, which he saw in the course of his journey, was at Orphano, a village near the site of the antient Amphipolis; a town of which the situation is placed beyond all doubt by the clear and explicit testimony of Thucydides:

'The quantity of antient medals brought to us, during the evening that we remained in this place, was so great, that we were occupied until a late hour in the night in selecting and purchasing them. We fixed the price, as usual, at two *pârahs* for every medal in *bronze*, and one piastre for every silver medal, without making any distinction afterwards which might cause altercation or bargaining. Every person who arrived with *bronze* or *silver* medals knew at his coming what he was to receive if we made any purchases; and we took care never to deviate from the price we had fixed, however desirable the acquisition might be. A few were offered at a higher price: and upon our refusing to give it, they were taken away. In this manner we lost some silver medals of *Thasos*; but in general the persons who brought them were very glad to get what we proposed: having sold any to us, they afterwards spread the news about the place, and sent others with more. In this manner we purchased one hundred and twenty-six medals, in *bronze*, and six in *silver*: many of them were rare, and some had never been seen by us before. But among the *bronze* medals, the number that we saw of *Amphipolis* was very remarkable. There were also coins of *Alexander* and of *Philip*.'

Many medals and precious stones may be collected from the mud-washers of Constantinople, persons who pay an annual

annual sum of money for the privilege of collecting, washing, and sifting the produce of the common sewers of that metropolis. They are accustomed to throw their drainings into large tubs, and to pass them afterward through wire sieves, of so fine a texture as to retain every article of value.

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For AUGUST, 1818.

EDUCATION.

Art. 8. *Report of the British and Foreign School-Society* to the General Meeting. With an Appendix, and a List of Subscribers and Benefactors. Crown 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

This able and important Report derives an accession of melancholy interest from the notice which it takes of the lamented death of Mr. Joseph Fox, who was secretary to the Society. That gentleman deserves a high place in the first class of philanthropists: scarcely any humane project was set on foot which had not his generous support; and the members of this committee bear the most indubitable testimony to the ardour of his disinterested benevolence, when they declare that this institution must have perished if it had not been preserved by his unwearied toils and his great pecuniary sacrifices. He indeed considered the Society itself as of such inestimable importance to the knowlege and consequent virtue and happiness of mankind, that he gave himself up to its support with a degree of self-devotion which has seldom been equalled in the annals of philanthropy. He is now at rest from his labours; and we trust that he is gone to his reward!

We were sorry to observe, in that part of this Report which relates to France, that the cause of public instruction appears to have experienced a retrograde movement in that country, owing to the narrow views and illiberal spirit of the restored dynasty. It is said that two-thirds of the children in France who are 'of age to attend schools,' and who amount to 'upwards of two millions,' are growing up in ignorance; and of the whole mass of the inhabitants of France, about sixteen millions are unable to read or write.' In the report of the Parisian Society for elementary instruction, many important facts are disclosed respecting the present intellectual state of the French. We are told that, in the antient province of Berry, 'there is not always a single school for every twenty villages; that instruction is often restricted to reading; that one-tenth only learn reading and arithmetic; that *it is difficult to find persons to fill the office of mayor, who have so much education; and certain individuals exercise that office, although unable to read.*' P. 39. In the present French National Schools, the Roman Catholic religion is exclu-

sively taught; and no teachers are admitted who profess a different creed. According to the information here given, even the government of Russia seems more willing than that of France to admit liberal principles into its institutions for general education.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 9. *Letters addressed to* ——————, Esq.: respecting the Union of the Regular Clergy with Dissenters in the Distribution of the Bible. By the Reverend John Ward of Mickleover. 8vo. pp. 138. 3s. sewed. Rivingtons. 1817.

Mr. Ward writes in so desultory and indefinite a manner, that it is difficult to make out what he really means: but, in the midst of a farrago of remarks which far surpass our comprehension, we sometimes meet with a sensible observation. For instance, we can fully agree with him that it would 'be wise, and reasonable and Christian-like, and even politic too, in our episcopal governors, to consult upon the propriety of the admission of but *one* (*creed*) for the service of the day.' P. 120. One creed, made up of polemical ingredients, might be more than enough: but to require a congregation, in the same forenoon, to believe three contradictory formularies seems to imply that the powers of faith are too great to sink under any weight.

Art. 10. *The Principles of the Christian Religion*, addressed to her Daughter; and on Theology. By Mrs. Lucy Hutchinson, Author of the "Memoirs of the Life of Colonel Hutchinson, Governor of Nottingham Castle and Town," &c. 8vo. pp. 350. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

Mrs. Hutchinson's memoirs of Colonel H. proved her to have been a highly amiable and enlightened woman. Her diffidence in speaking of herself, and her desire on all occasions to display the talents and the virtues, the courage and the patriotism, of her husband in the strongest light, while she herself is retired in the shade, all conspire to throw that kind of charm over her character which renders it more peculiarly attractive. Her merits as an historian, also, are of no ordinary kind, for her narrative is distinct and animated, and furnishes a most lively picture of the times. We cannot, however, bestow so much praise on her religious as on her historical composition. Her theological opinions were intimately allied with those which are, at present, termed Calvinistical; and this Calvinistic doctrine, though softened down by the naturally gentle spirit and benevolent temper of Mrs. Hutchinson, is still very deficient in that comprehensive charity which does not limit the favour of God to any particular opinions, but teaches that, in every sect, he who worketh righteousness is an object of the divine regard. Though Mrs. H. was a woman of great good sense, yet, when she comes to expound the Calvinistic creed, her language, like that of other professors of it, is very bewildering and indefinite. We will give a specimen of her theological system.

'The Gospel, in its original, signifies a glad message; and it is the most blessed message that man could hear, glad tidings of salvation

salvation to poor condemned sinners; condemned for a debt and forfeit they could never pay, nor make satisfaction for; not only condemned but already arrested and captived in the chains of Satan, and cast out of the favour of God, in daily expectation of the full execution of his fierce wrath, and severe justice against sin, who is most holy, and cannot behold iniquity with the least indulgence to it, and who is a consuming fire, that will burn up all the wicked as stubble in the day of his wrath; for these poor sinners, already, as it were, dead in the apprehension of death and horror of their own guilty consciences, to hear that a sufficient surety had offered himself, and was accepted to pay and cancel all their debt, to die in their stead, and to rescue them from the power of death, and not only so, but to restore them into the grace and favour of God, so that they shall never lose it again, and to marry these poor miserable captives to the eternal Son of God, and give them an interest in all his grace, glory, and blessedness. O what joyful tidings *is this!* how should all hearts be affected with it!' (Pp. 51, 52.)

The following are some of Mrs. Hutchinson's notions concerning what is called original sin, which is the chief corner-stone of the Calvinistic theology: 'This first sin of Adam, as he was the root of all mankind, not only was imputed to all his posterity, he standing as a public person in whom all men sinned, being then in his loins and became liable to the curse of God due to sin, but it also infected every child of his, issuing by ordinary generation, and is that original sin, from whence all actual transgressions flow; the corrupted fountain of all evil, by which the image of God was defaced in all men, and they became the children of darkness and slaves of Satan, being through the just wrath of God given into his power.' (P. 34.)

Such confused and perverted notions of religion are sufficient to eclipse the brightest and stagger the plainest understanding. The simple doctrines of Christianity can no longer be recognised when converted into the jargon of Calvinism; and, in proportion as the first are in unison with the most elevated sentiments of virtue and of piety, the last cannot find an ingress into the mind without giving an obliquity to its moral notions, and inverting the character of the Divine attributes.

NATURAL HISTORY, GEOLOGY, HORTICULTURE, &c.

Art. 11. *The Science of Horticulture*, including a practical System for the Management of Fruit Trees, arranged on demonstrative physiological Principles; illustrated by Sketches in Twelve Plates; with a Commentary on the Works of Bradley, Hitt, Miller, Forsyth, Knight, Kirwan, Sir Humphry Davy, and Mrs. Ibbotson. By Joseph Hayward, Gent. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

If that part of the title, which announces this book as a *practical* system of horticulture founded on *demonstrative physiological* principles, be true, either Joseph Hayward, Gent., or Messrs. Longman and Co., will derive a large sum of money from the sale

of it; and it unquestionably does contain many useful hints, which may promote this desirable event.—The author tells us that, about twenty years since, Hitt's treatise being put into his hands, he attempted to train a number of young trees according to his method, but very soon found it a difficulty bordering on impossibility to produce the effect described by him: yet a due attention to nature enabled him to proceed with considerable success; and to Hitt he acknowleges himself indebted for his first principles relative to the general management of fruit-trees. The difficulty of acquiring such knowlege from books, he adds, has been deplored by Bradley, Miller, Hitt, Forsyth, Mr. Knight, and in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; and a reference to those authors will shew how trifling has been the improvement in horticulture. He then, after more general comments, examines the nature of the roots of trees; saying that Mr. Knight and Mrs. Ibbotson, in their attempts to apply their theories to practice, have not been successful, but have overlooked those simple laws which lead to the grand object of horticulture; and that Hitt appears to have had a clearer conception of the flow of the sap in trees than any other author. He dwells largely on the root, and thinks (we believe, justly) that the use of the tap-root is not to fix the tree firmly in the ground, or to keep it straight, observing that the *Elm* is seldom if ever found with a tap-root. This, however, is true only with respect to trees raised from layers: for we have seen hundreds of seedling elms with as strong a tap-root as any oak, beech, or ash. In fruit-trees he advises it to be shortened, because experience proves a tap-root to be prejudicial to fructification.

Relative to the food of plants, Mr. Hayward remarks that no author has established a theory which accords with actual observation: but that the elementary principles of *oxygen*, *hydrogen*, *nitrogen*, *carbon*, and *earth*, will enable us 'to trace effects, ascertain causes, and to draw conclusions that will be found applicable to every existing case, or positive result.' — This is a bold sentence, and we wish that we could conscientiously apply to the writer of it, "*Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas.*" He next recommends that, whatever food we give to fruit-trees, it should be in a soluble state, and then details the opinions of his predecessors relative to soils and composts.

On the rise and circulation of the sap, after having observed that the explanation of Mr. Knight must operate as a bar to correct knowlege, and an obstacle to perfect practice, the author gives the following fact:

'Mr. William Whitmarsh, of Wilton, in Wiltshire, having a green Bergamot pear-tree which seldom produced any fruit, removed the bark three-fourths of the circumference, which was about 27 inches, and the width of half an inch. A neighbour for a joke removed the remaining bark, so that a circle of half an inch was completed round the trunk; the tree in consequence was expected to die, but it lived, produced fruit, and is now alive, though the operation was performed five or six years since.'

He

He next mentions the opinions of other authors on the office and use of leaves, and criticizes those of Messrs. Knight, Maher, and Salisbury, relative to the influence of gravitation on the motion of the sap; for, though he allows that 'bending down and fixing in a pendulous position young strong branches of an apple tree makes them fruitful,' it will not do this for any length of time; and that it will be necessary to cut out the old pendulous branches periodically, and bring young shoots down in their places. We believe that Messrs. Knight, Maher, and Salisbury never either thought or said that bending down a branch would make it bear fruit for ever, but that in due time its place must be supplied by another, exactly in the way which Mr. Hayward proposes.

The succeeding observations are on pruning, extracted chiefly from other authors, plates being added to explain the methods of Hitt, Knight, Forsyth, and Mr. Hayward; and the chapter is finished with a remark that, 'though Mr. Knight might correctly estimate the value of luxuriant branches, he has not pointed out the means of directing their growth in such places where they are wanted.'

Hitherto, the author's pages have been filled principally with extracts from others: but in those which succeed, and in which he professes to make 'a deduction and application of the laws of nature, ordained for the support and government of vegetables,' much new matter is brought forwards; and by attending to his directions we believe that some useful results will ensue in practical gardening. Deeming these worth all the rest of his book, we will recommend them to perusal; advising Mr. Hayward, if he publishes another edition, to write with less pomp, especially when he 'lays down and explains' what he thinks are 'the laws or principles of nature.' There is an author, also, not here mentioned, whom we counsel him to read again and again, and from whom he may profit in various respects, — Lord Bacon.

The next chapter contains comments on the practice of our nurserymen relative to fruit-trees; some of which are just, but others very unjust: for a great many of as perfect trained trees, as art joined to nature can produce, may be seen in the nurseries about London; and such high prices would not be obtained for them, if it were almost impossible, as the author asserts, 'to find one plant in twenty worth transplanting.' In his instructions for their management in the nursery, however, we perceive much to commend, as well as relative to the soils and borders for them; and, under each particular sort of fruit-tree, various useful hints are given, especially respecting blights, and those diseases from which vegetables, like all other living things, are not exempted.

Art. 12. *A short Introduction to the Study of Geology*; comprising a New Theory of the Elevation of the Mountains, and the Stratification of the Earth: in which the Mosaic Account of the Creation and the Deluge is vindicated. By Joseph Sutcliffe, A.M. 8vo. pp. 54. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1817.

We apprehend that the candid and enlightened theologian will

scarcely thank Mr. Sutcliffe for his well-meant, but crude and inconsiderate, attempt to reconcile the literal language of Genesis with the discoveries and conjectures of modern times. If, however, our grateful acknowlegements for the brevity of his essay can afford him any consolation, they are very cordially at his service; and our geological readers will, we are confident, sufficiently appreciate the *novelty* of some of the topics with which he has deemed it proper to relieve his more common-place information. Thus,

'The theory here given of the elevation of the mountains is copied from a simple occurrence of nature. On seeing one day during winter, a bowl of lard, whose surface was tossed up into ridges of hills, I enquired the cause, and found that the melted fat had been suddenly removed to a current of very cold air in the dairy. The congelation had been so rapid, that the horizontal strata had been broken and elevated to various oblique positions, and many of them made vertical; and some of the vertical had become inclined the opposite way. From the time that I investigated this phenomenon, I abandoned all the old theories of geologists, which suppose continents and mountains to have been elevated by latent heat; because I considered the same law which sported with the strata of the lard as efficient to sport with the strata of the earth.'

Again:

'At Scarborough, in Yorkshire, there is a stratum of heterogeneous granite, thickly crowded with eels. They are nearly all coiled, as is the spontaneous act of that fish in the time of danger; and the defect in the hollow of the head demonstrates that they were once alive. A sudden erruption of the sea must have entombed them, with its eroted matter, at a stroke, leaving the mass to be farther stratified by succeeding tides, and crystallized by the ascension of subte aneous fluids.'

We must frankly confess, wever, that we cannot very conscientiously felicitate Mr. Sutc fe on such *novelties* in his vocabulary as *raminous*, *guymes*, *ovular*, *portuberose*, *chronomecal*, and *eroted*. We may likewise be permitted to express our surprize that a graduate of an University, and the author of a grammar of the English language and guide to composition, should join *ramifications* with a singular verb, should confound *irruption* with *eruption*, write *scale* for *shale*, use *argilla* and *silica* in the plural, and employ *strata* and *scoriæ* in the singular number. In the frequent suppression of the relative pronoun, he is unfortunately by no means singular: but we trust that he will not be readily imitated in such unscholar-like orthography as *massey*, *tetradron*, *quartose*, *Pontopedon*, *canele*, *mundus subterraneous*, *lamillar*, *particules*, *tellurim*, *Kunchel*, *fibrouse*, &c.

Art. 13. *Report of a Committee of the Linnæan Society of New England*, relative to a large Marine Animal, supposed to be a Serpent, seen near Cape Ann, Massachussetts, in August, 1817. 8vo. pp. 59. 4s. sewed. Souter. 1818.

The numerous and respectable testimonies, adduced by the Committee of the Linnean Society of New England, have distinctly established

established the fact that a marine animal of huge dimensions, and resembling an overgrown serpent, or eel, was repeatedly seen by various individuals. The amount of the evidence, indeed, which these trans-Atlantic naturalists have collected, when taken in combination with a paper by Dr. Barclay, of Edinburgh, inserted in the first volume of the Memoirs of the Wernerian Society, (a document of which the Committee seem not to have been aware,) may suffice to convince the most sceptical that some such species exists, and that one of the *marvels* of the honest Pontoppidan has been realized. So far are we ready to lend our willing faith: but, with all deference to the judgment of the Committee, we must beg leave to demur to the alleged *genealogy* of the *Scoliophis Atlanticus*, an animal of the snake-tribe, which is represented in an engraving prefixed to the present Report, and which figures as the young of the great sea-serpent, though caught at a hundred and fifty paces from the shore.

On the particular contents of the pamphlet before us, we forbear to enlarge, both because they are the result of imperfect contemplation, and because the most important of them have appeared in the public prints and magazines.

LAW.

Art. 14. *Remarks upon certain Illusory Qualifications of Members of the House of Commons:* shewing that such Qualifications are in Fraud of the Statutes of Ann and George II., and tend to involve Members in the Guilt of Moral Perjury. By Ignotus. Inscribed to the Right Hon. Nicholas Vansittart. 8vo. pp. 40. Hatchard. 1818.

Ignotus has here employed some time and pains on the proof of what appears to us a self-evident proposition. Yet we do not consider his labour as useless on that account; for we doubt not, if the new parliament should contain any members (as probably it will) who have not a *bonâ fide* qualification, that the usual improper mode of creating one will be adopted. The required oath will then be taken by some of those members heedlessly, and as a mere matter of form, without the slightest consideration of the true intent and spirit of it; — and by others, who may have more closely examined its language and understand its nature, with all those miserable salvos of mental reservation, which would be *as effective* in a court of conscience, as their bonds, which are given on the occasion, would be in a court of law: — both standing good only because they are not tried. It is proper, therefore, that the subject should be brought manfully forwards; and the time for doing this is judiciously chosen by *Ignotus*. If it be right that the representatives of the nation should possess certain qualifications in point of property, the law ought to be made more strict, and the evasion of it should be met and prevented by some legislative measure. If, on the other hand, such a restriction be deemed an unnecessary part of the constitution of Parliament, let it be erased from the Statute-book, and let it not stand merely to bring disgrace on the member who evades it; leading him to com-

commence his parliamentary career with a perjury,—or, if that expression be deemed too strong, with an oath of which he is obliged to argue away the letter and the spirit by refined modifications.

It is palpable that the one or the other of these suggestions should be adopted; which of them is most consonant to the spirit of the constitution, it is not now necessary to inquire: but, should the question arise, we will then consider it. The present author has argued his case well; more particularly where he has shown, by the regulations adopted with respect to the qualifications of *electors*, that it is possible to make those of the *elected* equally precise.

MEDICINE.

Art. 15. *A Letter to the Rt. Hon. Lord Binning*, M. P., &c. &c. containing some Remarks on the State of Lunatic Asylums, and on the Number and Condition of the Insane Poor in Scotland. By Andrew Halliday, M.D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Underwood.

To Dr. Halliday we are already indebted for some observations on the subject of lunatic asylums, which we noticed in our lxist Vol. p. 322.; and he has again turned his attention to this very important topic in the pamphlet before us, which furnishes some statements well deserving our serious consideration. We hope that the great stain on the humanity of the English nation, arising from the management of the insane and the nature of the places provided for their reception, is likely to be effectually removed; so that it may appear unnecessary, and even invidious, to hold up to public view those evils which are either already ameliorated, or are in a train for being altogether corrected. We are, however, doubtful whether this reform may have extended itself into the remoter parts of the island; and, even were we assured that this is the case, we apprehend that it is by no means an unimportant or useless object to become fully acquainted with the evils that have existed, in order that we may the more effectually guard against their recurrence.

We shall therefore recommend Dr. Halliday's pamphlet to the perusal of our readers: it is not long; it is written in a perspicuous and plain style; and it contains some important and apparently accurate statistical documents. The facts contained in the following quotation will excite the feelings as well as the curiosity of the reader, while they unfortunately exhibit only one among the numerous proofs that have lately occurred, of the little attention which is paid to those objects who are removed from public inspection.

"I visited the cells of the Edinburgh Bedlam a few days ago, accompanied by the celebrated German physician Spurzheim; and although the appearance of the whole is much improved since I last saw them, yet it is impossible for language to depict their wretched state. We found *fifty-four* individuals in that abode of misery, two-thirds of them females; many had scarcely a sufficiency of rags to cover their nakedness, and even the shreds that remained appeared not to have been cleansed of their impurities for months. In a distant cell we discovered a woman, worn out by the violence of the disease, stretched upon a straw pallet; and

sinking rapidly to the grave. A *rat* was perched upon her bed: I shall not affirm that this animal had attempted to mangle the exhausted body of the dying maniac, but the sight was horrible! Alarmed by our unexpected intrusion, it retreated coolly through a *large hole* in the floor of the cell.

'I blush for my country, when I repeat the remark made by Dr. Spurzheim on leaving the place, "That palaces are provided for the accommodation of the greatest villains and disturbers of society, while these unfortunate beings are left in misery;" and I am grieved to add, that I am a living witness, *that the swine in Germany are better cared for.*'

Art. 16. *An Essay on the Shaking Palsy.* By James Parkinson, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

The affection described in this pamphlet is not of frequent occurrence, but it is one which every practitioner, who has had extensive means of observation, will scarcely fail to recognize; and he will at once acknowlege that it requires a more distinct and specific consideration than medical writers have yet bestowed on it. Regarding it nosologically as belonging to the genus paralysis, Mr. Parkinson applies to it the specific name *agitans*, and thus defines it: 'Involuntary tremulous motion, with lessened muscular power, in parts not in action and even when supported; with a propensity to bend the trunk forwards, and to pass from a walking to a running pace: the senses and intellects being uninjured.'

Mr. P. gives a detailed history of the disease through all its stages, which we believe to be very correctly drawn up, and which exhibits a melancholy picture of human infirmity. The malady runs through its course so slowly, that the practitioner has seldom an opportunity of seeing the whole of it. Mr. Parkinson has noticed six cases, but in two only has he been able to trace its progress, or to obtain all the necessary information respecting its origin and advances. From these, however, he has derived his knowlege of its phænomena; and he then proceeds to examine its pathognomonic symptoms, its diagnosis, and the relation which it bears to other diseases that generally resemble it, whence he deduces his theory of its proximate cause. This he supposes to be 'a diseased state of the medulla spinalis, in that part which is contained in the canal formed by the superior cervical vertebræ, and extending, as the disease proceeds, to the medulla oblongata.' He very candidly acknowleges that he has not had the means of confirming his hypothesis by dissections: but the arguments which he adduces in its support are plausible, and we are not aware of any theoretical objection that can be urged against it. The method of cure is founded on the hypothesis of its cause, and from the analogy of those cases in which an injury of the spine is proved to exist. 'In such a case, at whatever period of the disease it might be proposed to attempt the cure, blood should be first taken from the upper part of the neck, unless contra-indicated by any particular circumstance. After which, vesicatories should be applied to the same part, and a purulent discharge obtained by appropriate use of the sabine liniment;

ment; having recourse to the application of a fresh blister, when from the diminution of the discharging surface pus is not secreted in a sufficient quantity. Should the blisters be found too inconvenient, or a sufficient quantity of discharge not be obtained thereby, an issue of at least an inch and a half in length might be established on each side of the vertebral columna, in its superior part. These, it is presumed, would be best formed with caustic, and kept open with any proper substance.*'

Art. 17. *Remarks on Insanity;* founded on the Practice of John Mayo, M. D. Fellow of the College of Physicians, and tending to illustrate the Physical Symptoms and Treatment of the Disease. By Thomas Mayo, B. M. Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 90. Boards. Underwood. 1817.

Although we do not find much in this work which can recommend it to notice as a literary performance, or even as a philosophical essay on a professional topic, yet, as containing the result of a long course of practical experience, it is intitled to our attention. — Mr. Mayo is a strenuous advocate for the opinion, which is now gaining ground among both physiologists and pathologists, that insanity is not a mental but a physical disease; that its proximate cause is always the same, and consists in 'a process of increased action,' characterized by 'paroxysms of heightened violence occasionally supervening.' He is induced to draw this conclusion principally from the result of dissections; which exhibit appearances that are imagined to be best explained on the supposition that the parts had been caused to assume their present appearance by this kind of action. — Another point on which Mr. M. insists is that some bodily disorder, affecting organs besides the brain, may be always observed to occur in insanity; and which, though conceived to be only symptomatic of the cerebral disease, tend to confirm the opinion of its physical origin.

Mr. Mayo's ideas respecting the pathology of insanity naturally lead to the depletory plan of treatment, which indeed appears to be sanctioned by experience. On this subject, we have the following observations:

'I shall not attempt to separate in arrangement treatment from pathology. We cannot but view these considerations as inseparably interwoven, since we find the character and course of the disease determined by the treatment which we adopt. Our means of cure may be briefly enumerated: they consist of occasional cupping or bleeding — of the use of issues or setons, — of continued purgation, of nauseating medicines: finally, — of the class of

'* Cork, which has been hitherto neglected, appears to be very appropriate to this purpose. It possesses lightness, softness, elasticity and sufficient firmness; and is also capable of being readily fashioned to any convenient form. The form which it seems would be best adapted to the part is that of an almond, or of the variety of bean called scarlet bean; but at least an inch and a half in length.'

sudorific and refrigerant medicines. To this last-mentioned class of remedies we attach, however, very secondary importance.'

The great object, therefore, in the cure of insanity, according to this system, is the due management of the various means of evacuation, and especially of blood-letting: but it would appear that its proper application is a matter of great delicacy, as we learn from the difficulty in deciding on a point which must be of daily occurrence.

'On the question of depletion during the paroxysm, there are contra-indicants to be considered. The patient is in danger from exhaustion. Depletion has a direct effect in weakening him, an indirect effect in preventing his weakness by lessening excitation. These views are important, and render it very difficult to seize the point to which depletion may be carried during the paroxysm. To wash the head with cold lotions, to apply leeches to the temples; these are measures certainly safe, and often of the greatest advantage.'

We could not easily give a thorough abstract of this small work, because it is deficient in arrangement, and its separate parts are not always very obviously connected together. It is, however, concise; and, as it appears to contain a number of remarks that are directly deduced from experience, we recommend it to the perusal of our readers.

Art. 18. *Cursory Remarks on a Bill, now in the House of Peers,* for regulating *of* Mad-houses, its probable Influence upon the Physical and Moral Condition of the Insane, and upon the Interests of those concerned in their Care and Management: with Observations on the Defects of the present System. By George Man Burrows, M.D., F.L.S. &c. 8vo. 4s. Harding, &c. 1817.

The dreadful abuses existing in houses appropriated for the reception of the insane, which were detected by the parliamentary inquiry not long since instituted, forcibly attracted the sympathy and the indignation of the whole community. It is scarcely possible to conceive a greater quantity of moral and physical evil than appeared within the walls of some establishments previously deemed respectable, and conducted by individuals who bore a character for integrity and professional ability. These disclosures have naturally diminished the confidence of the public in this branch of medical practitioners generally; and, as must always be the case, the innocent suffer with the guilty. Experience has proved that unrestrained power was not safely lodged in their hands; and if, in consequence of this fact, suspicions be unjustly thrown on many individuals who in no way deserve it, we have only to submit to circumstances, and to wait until the uniformly correct conduct of those who are appointed to superintend the insane shall again raise them to their former estimation.

The author of this pamphlet, as we collect from some expressions in it, is the proprietor of an institution for the reception of lunatics; and being conscious, as we may presume, of his own integrity,

tegrity, he feels indignant at the restrictions to which he is subjected by the late Act of Parliament, and at the apparent degradation which it inflicts on him. He examines minutely all the several parts of the Bill, objects to the extensive powers that are given to the Commissioners, and endeavours to prove that certain of the duties imposed on them will be very difficult to carry into effect, some indeed absolutely impossible, while others are vague and undefined, and give scope for arbitrary decisions and personal tyranny. He argues that, by the proposed system, the keepers of lunatic establishments will become subjected to a code of penalties and interferences, to which no person of liberal views and of good education will or ought to submit. He insists also forcibly on the absurdity and impropriety of that clause of the Bill which permits the servants, and even the patients themselves, to be received as evidences against the masters; a permission in the highest degree unjust and impolitic, and which must have the effect of materially cramping the exertions of the superintendant, and taking out of his hands that authority which is essential to the due exercise of his professional duties. In several of these remarks, we fully coincide; yet we must also observe that many of the restrictions, which seem severe, are justified by the late disclosures.

Some important considerations occur in the latter part of the pamphlet, respecting the comparative success of the English and the French practitioners in insanity. The balance appears to be in favour of the latter; a conclusion which, if it be founded in fact, we trust, will have the effect of rousing our countrymen to greater exertions.

Art. 19. *Observations on the Phenomena of Insanity.* Being a Supplement to Observations on the Casual and Periodical Influence of Peculiar States of the Atmosphere on Human Health and Disease. By Thomas Forster, F.L.S., &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Underwood.

Mr. Forster has been for some time known as a zealous disciple of Dr. Gall, and has applied his doctrines to the elucidation of pathology. The object of this pamphlet is to illustrate the opinion that insanity always depends on a physical change in the structure of the brain, and that this change consists in the increased quantity of blood that is sent to it; while the particular species of insanity, or the character which it assumes, is owing to the preponderance of some cerebral organ, which modified the disposition of the individual in his healthy state, and now becomes aggravated by disease. Mr. Forster thus describes his doctrine:

'The organs of the brain may be deranged separately or together, any number of them at once, or one separately: hence, patients are insane in one particular faculty, and judge of it by another; when the organ of cautiousness is the particular subject of cerebral irritation, the prominent characteristic of the insanity is fear and melancholy; the organ of ideality would add whimsical and imaginary dangers; the mysterizing faculty gives a superstitious

stitious turn to the illusion, and the patient then sees visions, hears angels sing, voices calling him, &c.; or, when the upper parts are deranged, he is religiously mad; when the organ of combativeness is morbidly active, he is raving and furious; or destructive if the part of the brain behind the ears be inordinately large, or be called into diseased action. When the symptoms vary or alternate, as fury, melancholy, &c., it is because the irritated or inflamed state is shifted from one to another organ."

The above opinions, as far at least as this little work is concerned, rest more on their general probability, or their supposed coincidence with acknowleged facts, than on any support which is here brought to their aid. To that part of the doctrine which presupposes or requires a belief in cranioscopy, we cannot assent; and we do not think that we have yet sufficient proof that all diseases of the brain depend on an increased determination of blood. We are, however, strongly inclined to the opinion that insanity is always attended with a physical change in the organ; and it is well known that, in most cases, the previous habits and dispositions of the patient become apparent in his deranged state.

POETRY.

Art. 20. *Stanzas sacred to the Memory of Mr. James Swan*, jun. who departed this Life, January 16. 1818, in the 37th Year of his Age. By his afflicted Father. 12mo. pp. 8. Printed by the Author, Fleet-Street.

An 'afflicted father' here bewails, in feeling terms, the early loss of a son whom he represents as sustaining with great propriety all the relations of life which he had borne, and as leaving a widow and five children to mingle their tears with parental grief. The stanzas conclude with an *Epitaph*, which expresses the writer's affliction, and shews the foundation for it:

'Who art thou, Man, that strayst among the dead?
Most serious be thy mien, and light thy tread.
Wouldst thou the history of the being know,
Whose ashes rest in silent sleep below?
He was a man of feelings warm and bland
As e'er to Misery rais'd the willing hand:
Generous and good, a devotee to Truth,
Whose dictates led him through the snares of youth:
His noble heart, of life despis'd the wiles,
The tyrant's dictates, and the villain's smiles.
A son belov'd, a husband fond and true,
As e'er the milk of human kindness drew.
No man e'er lov'd his tender offspring more, —
His infant children were his richest store. —
'Look here, vain Man, cut off in early bloom,
All that of life was great, lies in this tomb. —
Learn then this awful lesson from the past,
That thou, alas! must come to this at last."

Art. 21. *Monody to the Memory of the Princess Charlotte Augusta*. By the Author of "Evening Hours." 8vo. pp. 22. Chappell, jun.

We

We spoke of the "Evening Hours" in our last Number, and the present Monody exhibits the same characteristics. The writer deprecates attention to 'inaccuracies,' because this production is 'a sudden and spontaneous effusion of feeling:' but we cannot admit this plea as an excuse for blemishes in a small composition when it is made public; and certainly this Monody is not unspotted. It may be allowed, however, to manifest fancy, spirit, and feeling; and, as we learn that the writer is very young, we will hope for greater correctness in his future effusions, though the way to attain this improvement is to *solicit* rather than to *refuse* the criticisms of others. Our readers may accept a brief specimen:

'Oh! how rudely the whirlwind has scatter'd afar
The blossom we almost had dar'd to adore!
'Tis vanish'd and gone, like the far shooting star
That sparkles in beauty—then sparkles no more!—

'No high-wrought picturing of fancied woe;
No visionary scene in mournful dress;
From me, a lowly bard, the strain shall flow
Spontaneous as it springs from deep distress.
And who so rude will deprecate the shell,
Scarce heard mid louder plainings of the lyre?
Oh! it would breathe, if it could breathe as well,
Tones that should every soul with grief inspire!
What though alone one melancholy bird
In sweetest melody may pour her song,
Shall not another chorister be heard,
Because less music may to him belong?—
Forbid it, Pity! Harmony and Woe,
Like rain and sunshine in the summer weather,
Or as the colors of the heavenly bow,
In sweetest unison *may* blend together—
But ah, how rare!—much oft'ner, like the storm,
In darkling clouds Grief muffles up his form;
And striding on the pinions of the gale,
Dissolves himself in floods of fire, and rain, and hail.'

Let the author himself consider the following lines, (among others,) and correct the faults which he surely may discover in them: p. 7. l. 4. and 6.; p. 8. l. 6. and 7.; p. 12. l. 8.; p. 14. line last; p. 16. l. 8.; p. 17. l. 7.; &c.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Facts relative to the State of Children who are employed by Chimney Sweepers as Climbing Boys;* with Observations and Outlines of a Plan for the Amelioration of their Condition. 8vo. 6d. Printed at York, and sold in London by Darton and Co.

Art. 23. *The Resolutions and Petition respecting Children employed as Climbing Boys,* agreed upon at a Meeting of the Inhabitants of Sheffield; with an Address on the Occasion by Samuel Roberts. 12mo. 2d. Montgomery, Sheffield.

Art.

Art. 24. *Report from the Committee of the Honourable the House of Commons, on the Employment of Boys in the Sweeping of Chimneys;* together with the Minutes of the Evidence taken before the Committee, and an Appendix. Ordered by the House of Commons to be printed June 23. 1817. Published under the Direction of the Society for superseding the Necessity of Climbing Boys; with Notes and Observations; a complete List of Persons using the Machine, and a descriptive Engraving of it. 8vo. pp. 142. 3s. 6d. sewed. Baldwin and Co.

Art. 25. *The Speech and Reply of Dr. Lushington,* in support of the Bill for the better Regulation of Chimney-Sweepers and their Apprentices, and for preventing the Employment of Boys in climbing Chimneys, before the Committee of the House of Lords. 8vo. 3d. each.

Art. 26. *Address from the Committee of the Society for superseding the Necessity of Climbing Boys,* with the Report of the Committee of the House of Lords on the Chimney Sweepers' Regulation-Bill. 8vo. 1s. Baldwin and Co.

The number of these pamphlets, and the places at which some of them are printed, sufficiently prove that the benevolent exertions of the principal Society, which we noticed in our Number for December 1816, have been successful in creating a widely extended interest in the situation of the unfortunate objects of their protection and interference. Not only have York and Sheffield come forwards, however, but more than twenty other places have publicly declared themselves the friends of the philanthropic measure of putting an end to the *infant-slavery* which has so long subsisted. The eloquent Speech of Mr. Roberts at Sheffield cannot be read, nor indeed can its subject be in any degree considered, without a corresponding sentiment being produced in the minds of every thinking individual. The evidence before Parliament amply proves, in the first place, that the trade cannot possibly be taught, by the mildest master, without extreme suffering on the part of the infant-learner; — that great and unnecessary cruelties are practised by many to oblige the reluctant apprentice to mount the disgusting and dangerous passage; — that, when taught, the boy is liable to be suffocated, or to be burnt, or to be jammed to death; — that infants so young as five years old are often employed; — that they are frequently decoyed from work-houses, and stolen from their parents; — that their growth is stunted, their health injured, their limbs deformed, and their lives shortened; — and that, even if they survive, most of them are prevented, by the increase of their size and by the overstocking of the trade, from continuing in it, and are turned adrift with bad habits, a decayed constitution, and an untutored mind, again to begin the world in some other calling, or, not finding any, to pick up an idle and a scanty pittance by beggary, or an immoral and adventurous subsistence by theft. It is fully proved, in the second place, that Smart's machine can sweep 95 out of every 100 chimneys, in as cleanly a manner, as efficiently,

efficiently, and as cheaply, as if performed by boys; and that the remainder (which generally occur in the houses of the opulent and which are the most dangerous for boys to climb,) may be cleaned by other simple and unexpensive means. Can, then, a question any longer exist, when so excellent a substitute is provided, and when no encroachment is desired or attempted on the practitioners in the trade, whether men should still be allowed to impose a most laborious and dangerous business on limbs not matured and bones scarcely hardened; on frames the least capable of supporting such hardships; on infants uninformed, and incompetent either to know their rights or, knowing them, to resist their oppressors? Thanks to the exertions of the amiable members of the Committee, these things are not likely long to continue; and we even rejoice at the delay which has occurred, because it will enable those who are inquiring into the subject to come to a more firm opinion, and to legislate more decidedly. Committees of both Houses of Parliament have already examined evidence and reported favourably on the measure; and the bill was stopped in the House of Lords merely to give an opportunity to the Surveyor-General to try an actual experiment on the efficacy of the machinery now in use. It is right that, before such a legislative measure is adopted, the fullest information should be acquired. Of its result we cannot doubt; and we anticipate with pleasure that one more session of Parliament will produce the abolition of a trade which is unknown in other countries, and is a disgrace to this, our boasted land.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A note, without date of time or place, recommends to our attention 'a controversy that has been for some time going on in Ireland.' We are never very eager to stretch out our hands for a share in controversy, and, thank Heaven! this seems to be beyond our reach.

We thank C. C. *Amicus* for his information, and shall endeavour to profit by it.

Hum perhaps amused himself in writing the letter with that signature, and he has amused us also: but his laughter and ours were probably derived from varying sources, according to the old epigram in Joe Miller:

"A different cause, says Parson Sly,
The same effect will give:
Avaro weeps lest he should die,
His wife lest he should live."

X. X. is informed that our GENERAL INDEX will appear in the course or at the end of the next month.

*** The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of October, with the Number for September.

THE APPENDIX

TO THE

EIGHTY-SIXTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Voyage à l'Embouchure de la Mer Noire, &c.; i. e.* A Voyage to the Mouth of the Black Sea; or, an Essay on the Bosphorus, and that Part of the Thracian Delta which includes the regulated Supply of Water to Constantinople: preceded by general Considerations on Physical Geography. With an Atlas, consisting of a New Chart of the Bosphorus, and of the Channel of the Black Sea, and several other new Designs. By Count ANDRÉOSSY, Lieutenant-General of Artillery, formerly Ambassador from France to London, to Vienna, and to Constantinople, Member of the Institute of Egypt, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 394. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz, London. Price 11. 6s. sewed.

THE acknowleged professional talents and the favourable opportunities, possessed by Count ANDRÉOSSY, eminently qualified him for the creditable execution of the work now before us: but the first clause of the title-page is rather calculated to mislead the reader, since the volume communicates no details of the author's progress to the scenes of his observations. On the other hand, the preliminary discourse, which extends to 50 pages, may justly be deemed somewhat excursive and inappropriate; as it chiefly consists of a rapid historical sketch of the political destinies of the antient Greeks and modern Turks, which was composed, as we afterward learn, with a view to a different undertaking.

'Noble, indeed,' says the Count, 'would be the design which should embrace the history of Constantinople, from the foundation of the antient Byzantium to the present day; exhibiting the successive aspects of these two foreign cities, connected with the leading events of the times; and unfolding the religious manners and customs of a people so different from ourselves, with their peculiar institutions, the form of the government which controuls them, the administration which supports them, their political condition, and a description of the monuments of public magnificence and utility which are still to be found in the capital of the Ottoman empire. Such a work I had begun, when circumstances, which it is needless to explain, occasioned its temporary suspension. The ensuing volume is destined to appear merely as an Appendix to a much more extensive publication on Constantinople and the Bosphorus. My researches with regard to the latter are founded on certain general principles of physical geography; and, in deference to the opinion of individuals of sound judgment, I have been induced to publish this intended supplement in a separate form. In consequence of this change of plan, I have inverted the arrangement of the materials, and placed the researches on the formation of the Bosphorus after the General Views of Physical Geography. In order not to violate the connection of ideas and the catenation of principles, (especially as the latter are, for the first time, presented in a didactic form,) I have thrown into marginal notes the main applications of which they are susceptible. From the same motives, I have preferred the slow labour of condensing my materials within the bounds of a few pages to the desire of composing volumes. In spite of all my care, however, I do not dissemble that several of the new views, in particular, which I have advanced, would require to be confirmed by the observations of travellers, topographers, or geologists: yet I believe that we shall more readily arrive at a common understanding by proceeding from the same data. In the reconnoitring service of the army, I have successfully availed myself during thirteen campaigns, of that particular method which I had early prescribed for my direction: I have found it equally useful in various journies in remote countries; and I have employed it in treating general questions, such as the determination of the points of partition in navigable canals, and the formation of the Thracian Bosphorus. In the examination of the last-mentioned problem, I have consulted nature more than books. By traversing the soil in all directions, and studying it in all its details, I was enabled to engage in researches, accompanied by observations, on which I bestowed all the attention that I was capable of giving to it; never losing sight of the maxim which *Condillac* lays down in his *Treatise on Systems*, namely, that ascertained facts are, properly speaking, the only principles of science.'

The *Introduction* is wholly occupied with general considerations on Physical Geography; a department of science comparatively modern, since in 1737 philosophers had not even determined the figure of the earth. *Buache* first ob-

served the relation which subsists between mountain-chains and the rivers derived from them, though he gave too much extension to his system of submarine ridges. *Bergmann*, in his Physical Description of the Earth, first generalized the position that the steepest side of mountains is on the west, or south; — on the west, when the mountains run from north to south, and on the south when they run from east to west: but Kirwan shewed that this principle is susceptible of various modifications. Father *Pini*, in his Memoir on Mont St. Gothard, endeavoured to impart precision to the language of geography and geology; and in the same department Messrs. *Bourcet* and *d'Arçon* stand pre-eminently distinguished. Still more recently, the barometer invented by *Gay-Lussac*, *Laplace*'s general formula for estimating heights by means of that instrument, the determination of the co-efficient of the formula by *Ramond*, confirmed by the direct experiments of *Biot* and *Arago*, and the hypsometrical tables successively improved by *Biot* and *Ollmans*, have reduced the barometrical measurements of heights to nearly trigonometrical precision.

These and other historical notices are followed by sixty-four general rules, or principles; the accuracy of which will scarcely be contested, and the application of which may, according to circumstances, greatly contribute to simplify and facilitate the labours of the civil and military engineer, the land-surveyor, and even the draughtsman and engraver. These primary positions, a careful perusal of which will, moreover, render the subsequent portions of the work more intelligible to the general reader, are followed by some valuable remarks on the different descriptions of straits.

In his first book, the author commences his inquiry with a critical discussion of the opinions of antient and modern writers concerning the formation of the Bosphorus. In support of the prevailing notion that the Euxine Sea was, even within the periods of historical record, a large lake, inclosed on all sides, — and which, by its violent irruption into the Archipelago, produced the deluge of Ogyges, or the inundation of Attica, — recourse has been had to the testimony of Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, and the poetical accounts of the Argonautic expedition. It is, however, well known that the assertions of Diodorus often rest on vague traditionary report; and that, in proof of the catastrophe to which we have alluded, he mentions that the Samothracian fishermen drew up in their *nets the capitals of pillars from the bottom of the sea*; — a species of capture not very conceivable. The Count, moreover, infers from barometrical measurements that the alleged irruption, even if it had taken

 place,

place, could have produced no considerable elevation of water in Asia; or, rather, that this province would have been screened from the impetuous current, which, forcing its way between Sestos and Abydos, would have been finally discharged into the sea, by the straits of Gibraltar.

Let us now, he adds, examine what would have taken place with regard to the Caspian. In consequence of the barometrical measurements executed in 1812 by Messrs. *Parrot* and *Engelhardt*, it has been ascertained that the level of the Caspian Sea is lower by 55 toises, or about 108 metres, than that of the Black Sea. On the supposition of the antient communication between these two seas, and on the admission of the rupture of the Cyanean rocks, those seas would have sunken at that epoch 72 metres; and, as the Caspian is at present 108 metres lower than the Black Sea, it follows that the level of the former must have subsided 180 metres since the year 1759 before Christ, and that consequently the Volga, which discharges itself into it, would have since that date acquired a fall of a corresponding height. I say a *fall*, for nature no longer works at hollowing valleys; on the contrary, their slope towards the mouths of rivers suffers diminution by the depositions which are left on them. Now, no cataract exists at the mouth of the Volga, and the communication of that river with the Caspian Sea is direct. The floods of the Volga, in fact, are known to be caused both by the melting of the snows and by the south wind, which not only excites a great commotion in the sea, but even exercises its violence on the Volga.

Moreover, the pretended irruption, so pointedly mentioned by Diodorus Siculus and Strabo, can scarcely be supposed to have occasioned the most extensive ravages at a distance of 200 miles, without leaving a single trace of its ruinous action in those regions in which its force would first be felt.

The opinions of modern travellers, particularly of *Tournefort*, *Pallas*, and *Olivier*, are next reviewed. *Tournefort*'s name alone seems to have given weight to his hypothesis, that the channel of the Black Sea was effected in consequence of the soft soil having been gradually imbibed with its waters: but his account sufficiently proves that he had not examined the structure of the surrounding mountains. *Pallas*, who never was at Constantinople, embraces the same opinion, and calls to his aid the agency of an earthquake; a supposition which is scarcely reconcileable with the remarkable regularity of the channel, besides that the whole of his reasoning is at variance with the measurements already noted.

From a topographical survey of the soil, which he unfolds at considerable length, Count Andréossy is firmly persuaded that the European and Asiatic sides of the channel of the Black Sea have remained nearly as they now are since the

period at which our continents received their formation. Even *Olivier*, who recognizes in these regions the existence of volcanic matters, seems to reject the doctrine of the irruption of the waters of the Euxine; or, at least, to suggest the propriety of topographical investigation. To such investigation, and to the application of his general principles, previously announced, the present ingenious author has actually resorted; and, if his series of measurements be not minutely accurate, we apprehend that it is sufficiently correct to warrant his main results. He has likewise devoted a chapter to the lithology of the Bosphorus; from which we collect that hills of a blueish primitive lime-stone, with masses of a dark-grey conglomerate (probably basaltic tufa), traversed by veins of chalcedony, basalt, and beds of clay, form the prominent geological features of the adjoining territory. Beyond Domouz-Déré, are beds of lignite; and the hard rocks, with the exception of the primitive lime-stone, contain microscopical particles of titanic iron, and exhibit other symptoms of volcanic origin. The *Giant's Mountain*, which, notwithstanding its designation, is but 186 metres above the level of the sea, is wholly calcareous. The rocky islets, termed *Cyaneæ*, are masses of volcanic conglomerate, which rest on clay, and are supposed not only to be of contemporaneous formation but to be connected by a common basis. They are not susceptible of culture, and with difficulty accessible on a single spot. The Asiatic Cyaneans, which are no longer to be found, most probably never existed but in the fictions of *Gyllius* and of poetry.

'Besides, we cannot conceive how the Cyaneans, especially those of Asia, (on the supposition of their existence,) could be so formidable. The interval between the two Fanaraki being nineteen hundred toises, the Cyaneans would occur at that distance, which is ample enough to secure them from impinging on either rocky shore. It is, moreover, difficult to explain how the far-famed *Argo* could get entangled between the Cyaneans and the land, when we reflect that no vessel can enter the Black Sea but with a southerly wind; that, while that wind blows, the currents forsake the coast of Asia, and tend to the west; and that then the navigation in the channel and along that coast becomes a matter of the utmost facility. The Argonauts, who, in order to reach Colchis, must have coasted along Bithynia, could experience no obstacle either in the channel of the Black Sea or at the egress of that sea. Thus are we enabled to appreciate the advice which King *Phineus*, in the *Argonautics of Apollonius*, gives to Jason and his crew, not to risk the passage of the Cyaneans before they had let fly a pigeon in the air: "*If it succeeds in crossing*," he adds, "*ply your oars, without a moment's intermission, but, if it perishes*

in the straits, return.' * Hence we may infer that nautical science had made little progress when good King Phineus received at his court these adventurous navigators, whom fable and history have rendered so celebrated. Such are the facts that result from observation. Yet let us not blame poetry for having recourse to the marvellous; for that is the source of the interest which it inspires, and of the charm which it renders us capable of relishing: but then let us beware of considering poets as unexceptionable authorities. † The Cyaneans were called *symplegades, synormides,* and *planctæ*; that is, wandering and conflicting islands. The prejudice concerning their movements, doubtless, originated in the circumstance of their appearing and disappearing in stormy weather, according to the depression or elevation of the waves; an effect which is still remarked when the sea is much agitated. In conformity, however, with the order of Destiny, these breakers were to acquire stability only when some mortal should be found sufficiently daring to clear them. On near inspection, during Jason's expedition, they were ascertained to be fixed; and the honour of this event was ascribed to Jason, as if he had been the first who surmounted the strait of the Cyaneans: but, long before, Phrixus had penetrated even into Colchis. An account of the wealth and of the useful productions of the country adjacent to the Phasus had reached the Greeks, and had tempted their cupidity. The expedition of the Argonauts appears, in fact, to have been nothing more than a project of the merchants of that nation, executed about 1350 years before the common era, to extend even to the extremity of the Euxine their commerce; which, in their native country, was limited to the shores of the Ægean Sea, and to an intercourse with the islands of that archipelago. But with what art Apollonius exhibits the geography and the manners of those remote and almost fabulous times! With what sombre hues he paints the ship Argo, struggling against the waves, raised to mountains of water, and against the floating Cyaneans, which seemed leagued with them to repel the Argonauts, and to bar

* See the poem of the *Expedition of the Argonauts*, or the *Conquest of the Golden Fleece*, by *Apollonius* of Alexandria, commonly called *Apollonius* of Rhodes, born about 276 years A. C.

'The author of the *Explanation of Fables* supposes that the pigeon here mentioned was merely a small boat, employed in exploring the passage, and which, on account of its lightness and celerity, was compared to a pigeon.'

† They at least abound in exaggeration. *Duloir*, a man of talents, who travelled in the Levant about 1650, happening to be at the Dardanelles, and full-fraught with Homer, being anxious to visit the spot at which, according to the prince of poets, the Grecian fleet was concealed, behind Tenedos, during the siege of Troy, takes occasion to observe that this channel is incapable of containing a dozen skiffs; and *Duloir* adds, in his simple and honest style: "Believe me, the antients have made a mighty boast of the parings of their nails." *Travels of the Sieur Duloir*, p. 215.'

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their entry into that sea which was then denominated *inhospitable*, on account of the barbarous people that inhabited its shores. It afterward assumed the name of Euxine, *or hospitable*, the relations of trade having approximated these tribes to the Greeks, and softened their manners.'

Count ANDRÉOSSY next exercises his critical acumen on the marble column called *Pompey's Pillar*, which is placed on the highest elevation of the Cyaneans, and has been mentioned by *Gyllius*, *Spon*, and *Wheeler*: but he quickly returns from this digression, and presents us with his remarks on the currents of the Bosphorus; a subject hitherto untouched, except by *Marsigli*, in a juvenile and imperfect essay. The present writer admits the existence of an upper current, flowing to the Archipelago, but denies that a lower stream proceeds from the latter to the Black Sea; maintaining, at the same time, that *Marsigli*'s alleged current in the harbour of Constantinople is a mere eddy, and that the flux and reflux of the waters of the Bosphorus remain to be proved. The real current is most perceptible in calm weather; and the manner in which it is affected by the north and the south wind, as well as by counter currents, is here minutely explained. On the 15th of July, 1814, the author perceived that the Bosphorus had risen, during calm weather, 18 inches above its ordinary level; and that this phænomenon was followed by an impetuous wind from the north-west, which lasted several days: the water not subsiding till the wind had ceased. According to *De Saussure*, sudden local variations in the pressure of the atmosphere may account for the *seiches* in the Lake of Geneva, and for analogous appearances elsewhere.

Our attention is next invited to the form and dimensions of different portions of the Bosphorus, and to a general view of that sea and the Propontis: but these we cannot attempt to analyze, without intruding on the patience of our readers.

The second book contains much curious and ingenious matter; for it treats of the artificial supply of water to the capital of the Ottoman empire, and developes the combined and singular apparatus of hydraulic pyramids and leaden pipes,—a contrivance of very considerable antiquity. Without the assistance of the plates, however, allotted to the illustration of this part of the work, we cannot undertake to render the system intelligible: but the Count's masterly exposition of its details will be found highly instructive and satisfactory, and may be considered as forming an important article in the history of hydraulics. Various aqueducts and reservoirs are likewise particularly described, and occasionally give rise to some sensible critical discussion. Thus, he fairly infers that

the remarkable structure, denominated *Justinian's aqueduct*, is not to be attributed to that celebrated Emperor.

'*Procopius* has allotted a work to commemorate the monuments raised by Justinian, and makes no mention of this one. Other authors have ascribed it to Andronicus Comnenus, who was elected Emperor in the year 1183, and did not reign quite two years. *Gyllius* seems to have adopted this opinion. He alleges that Andronicus undertook to convey the waters of Belgrade to Constantinople by lofty aqueducts, situated in the neighbourhood of Pyrgos, and by subterraneous canals. But *Nicetas-Choniatas*, the continuator of the Annals of *Zonarus*, affirms that Andronicus Comnenus caused these works to be *renewed*, which implies their existence previously to his time. In fact, we cannot doubt that the conveyance of the water of Belgrade was contemporary with most of the large cisterns which are still seen in Constantinople, and the most considerable of which carry us back to the reign of Constantine. Indeed, they universally bear the stamp of Roman greatness; for we know that Constantine was ambitious of making a second Rome of his new city, by erecting in it monuments corresponding to those which excited the public admiration in his antient capital. The conveyance of water for the supply of the latter was not one of its least remarkable objects, nor the least calculated to call forth the wonder of the present times: — but, besides that architecture had degenerated even at Rome, in the days of Constantine, the antient monuments of Constantinople are obviously mere imitations of the works of Rome, being deficient in that regularity of design which characterizes their prototypes. If these monuments astonish us by their greatness, we perceive a want of correctness in their outline, and inequalities among their respective proportions. This observation has no reference to the monstrous assemblage of columns of different materials and different orders, surmounted with capitals of varying dimensions and orders, and supporting the same arch, which may be exemplified in the cistern of Yéré-Batan-Sérai, as well as in others. Such incongruities can be justified only by Constantine's resolution to shew that he possessed the power of creating, in a few years, a city which should not yield to Rome either in dimensions or in magnificence. The precipitation, with which these works were erected, necessitated the employment of materials extracted, without taste or selection, from the monuments of Byzantium, which had been destroyed by that Emperor's orders as appertaining to another religion; and such was the prelude to that disastrous epoch of the middle ages, or Lower Empire, which entailed the total degradation of the arts on that very soil on which they had flourished with so much splendor.'

Count Andréossy's notices of the aqueduct of Valens, of the corporation of *Fountainiers*, of the mode of levelling by the *terazi*, &c., are not less deserving of attention from the curious. His estimate of the population of Constantinople and

and its suburbs, deduced from the daily consumption of water and flour, is 630,000 souls. To account for the apparent inadequacy of this result, he reminds us that the seraglio covers the same extent of surface as the city of Vienna, while it contains only 10,000 inhabitants; and that the public squares, mosques, market-places, baths, reservoirs, military and naval establishments, &c., necessarily occupy a large quantity of ground. The Turkish modes of living, also, require more room for the accommodation of a family than the arrangements of London or Paris would demand.

We now hasten to the conclusion:

'I have exhibited,' says the author, 'in the two preceding books, the results of the principal observations which I made during my stay at Constantinople; and I have annexed to them a sketch of the large chart of the Bosphorus, executed at the same time under my direction by three young officers, namely, Messrs. *Thomassin* and *Vincent*, captains of engineers, and *Moreton de Chabrillan*, captain of artillery, who devoted themselves to this task with singular zeal and perseverance. It was during the dreadful pestilence, in the years 1813 and 1814 *, that I traversed alternately with one of these officers, the other two being occupied with different departments, the environs of the Bosphorus and of Constantinople; a tract of soil remarkably diversified, which had not been hitherto explored, and which was a real acquisition for geography, topography, and the arts. The high gratification which, notwithstanding the hardship of the times, I then enjoyed, and the pleasing recollections which I still retain of these peaceful occupations, directed to objects of utility, and of my joint labours with thoroughly educated and completely estimable officers, exceed my powers of expression. In the second year, particularly, we had free scope for our excursions; all the Greek villages were deserted; the inhabitants, struck with dismay, having abandoned their houses, and taken refuge in the woods. Resigned as they are to destiny, the Turks remained confined within doors. A profound silence pervaded this kind of desolation; and, as we approached the villages, it was interrupted only by the doleful and plaintive barking of dogs, who were deprived of protection and of their masters, most of whom had perished or had fled to a distance.

'The general considerations on physical geography, prefixed to the first book, are the result and fruit of long observation, and

* No contagion had existed for eight years before: it broke out about the middle of 1812, just as I arrived at that residence, on the 25th of July. In autumn, it became so violent that, according to my approximative calculation, from 1812 to 1813, the plague had carried off, in Constantinople and the villages of the Bosphorus alone, nearly a hundred and sixty thousand persons. In the following year, it extended over the country, where it was the source of new ravages.'

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they are illustrated by two plates. To the friendship of M. *d'Aubuisson*, chief engineer of mines, and to M. *Magués*, engineer of bridges and roads, (both men of distinguished merit,) I am indebted for the barometrical levelling of the line of partition of the waters in the south of France; a levelling which corroborates my first ideas relative to the conception of the project of the Languedoc canal. This fine operation was executed at my request, in 1816; and it should the more powerfully excite my gratitude, because it must have been attended with much fatigue and trouble, and was not within the course of the ordinary occupations of these engineers.'

We have only to state, farther, that the Notes contain some curious collateral illustrations of the text; that to the whole is subjoined a sort of analytical Index; that the volume bears unequivocal marks of genius, and of careful observation; and that it is particularly calculated to yield entertainment and instruction to the geographer, the engineer, and the architect.

Art. II. *Regni Vegetabilis Systema Naturale; sive Ordines, Genera, et Species Plantarum, secundum Methodi Naturalis Normas Digestarum et Descriptarum; Auctore* Aug. Pyramo de Candolle. *Volumen Primum, sistens Prolegomena et Ordines quinque, nempè Ranunculaceas, Dilleniaceas, Magnoliaceas, Anonaceas, et Menispermeas.* 8vo. pp. 564. Paris, Strasburgh, and London, Treuttel and Würtz. 1818. Price 18s.

The vast extent to which the science of Botany has attained renders it more than ever an object to invent a natural mode of arrangement, which shall exhibit plants in a chain of connection that is formed wholly by similarity of natural character; and the great discoveries, which have of late been made in this department, with regard both to new species and to the knowlege of the true structure of those that have long been familiar to us, seem to offer a favourable prospect of success, in our endeavours to fill up this map of the vegetable kingdom. The first published attempt of this kind, which is deserving of notice, was that of *Adanson*, in his *Familles des Plantes:* but, whatever merit it possessed, it was immediately eclipsed by the artificial system of *Linné*, so much better adapted to the rapidly improving state of the science at that time. It accordingly soon fell into neglect, and is rarely mentioned by writers of the present day.

A much more successful effort was the system of *Antoine Laurent de Jussieu*, originally suggested by the arrangement which his uncle had adopted in the Royal Gardens at Trianon; and apparently undertaken from motives of respect to the

the memory of that amiable man. An endeavour to effect the farther improvement of this system has since been made by the learned *Ventenat*; and indeed the suffrages of the most erudite botanists in Europe have every where united, in paying the most gratifying tributes of applause to the labours of the younger *Jussieu*. *Linné*, at a very early period of his studies, began to direct his attention to the formation of a natural arrangement of plants; which is apparent so far back as the year 1736, when the first edition of the *Fundamenta Botanica* was sent forth. He seems, indeed, never to have lost sight of this favourite object; and to have considered it as the great end of the philosophical botanist's labours. During his life-time, he published merely his *Fragmenta* on this subject: but he was accustomed to deliver a private course of lectures to his favourite pupils, on the natural orders of plants: of which, since his death, an account has been published by *Giseke*; and, more recently, Sir James Ed. Smith has given us farther details on this interesting subject.

We have now to notice a still later attempt at a natural classification of plants, on a plan somewhat different from that of *Jussieu*, by a distinguished philosopher of Geneva, M. DE CANDOLLE. This writer, in his *Théorie élémentaire de la Botanique*, explained the principles on which the work before us has been constructed: indeed, the *Théorie* may be regarded as the preface to the present publication. The extent of the preliminary labours of the author, with a view to fit him for the arduous task of forming a natural system of the vegetable kingdom, appears to be such as amply to warrant us in anticipating the most successful results. After having long prosecuted the study of Botany, and acquired for himself a very considerable reputation among the learned of Europe, he determined to complete the collection of materials which he had formed, by visiting the most celebrated gardens and museums in Europe; more particularly those of Paris and London. It is pleasing to remark the gratitude with which he commemorates the kind attentions which he received from the French botanists; and the minuteness which he shews in enumerating all our English scientific as well as practical men, who with the most perfect liberality laid open to him their treasures, both living and preserved, of the vegetable kingdom. It is not without reason, therefore, that he boasts of the immense advantages which he possesses, in the extent and value of the materials with which he has undertaken to construct a system of this division of natural objects. He concludes his preface with the following remarks:

'Such

'Such, then, is a general sketch of my work, the first volume of which is now submitted to the judgment of botanists; and to the completion of which I propose to dedicate the whole of my future life. It is a task, indeed, which is dangerous and full of hazard, but one of the greatest utility. Relying on its importance, I beg the indulgence of those who are learned in the science; and, if I may be permitted so to express myself, I expect this favour: for I have ever observed that lenity is the companion of true science: those who have themselves overcome difficulties are of all others the most sensible of the arduous nature of the search after truth, and are most ready to pardon the blemishes which must frequently occur in a work like the present, comprehending so great a number and variety of objects.' (P. II.)

The vegetable kingdom is divided by the author under two great heads; the first consists of plants possessing a vascular structure, and springing from seeds furnished with one or more cotyledons: the second includes plants possessing merely a cellular structure, and springing from seeds destitute of cotyledons. In the first of these divisions, we are led to remark the importance of distinguishing the individuals of which it consists by their vascular structure: because the presence of cotyledons is not universal, although found in almost all of them. A few leafless plants are considered by M. DE C. as devoid of this component part of the seed. In the division of the vascular or cotyledonous plants, the character is drawn from the organs of vegetation, as well as from those of fructification; giving us the exogenous or dicotyledonous, and the endogenous or monocotyledonous. In the exogenous plant, the trunk is conical, and is formed of wood and bark; the external wood being softer and younger; and the seed contains two opposite cotyledons, or several of them arranged in a whorled manner. In the endogenous, again, the trunk is cylindrical and homogeneous, and its substance younger and softer in the centre; while the seed contains a single cotyledon, or two or more arranged alternately. By these extended characters, M. DE C. is enabled to obviate many objections which have been urged, with some force, against the division of plants drawn solely from the structure of the seed. The dicotyledonous or exogenous plants are characterized at some length, with minute reference to the structure of the stem. Here, however, we are sorry to observe that the author seems to consider the diametral insertments, or divergent rays of the wood, as true prolongations of the pith: though the most accurate observations seem to have ascertained satisfactorily that they are not productions from the pith, but woody substance of a peculiarly indurated structure.

In

In dividing the dicotyledonous plants into sub-classes, the author is obliged to restrict himself entirely to the characters drawn from the fructification; the organs of vegetation not affording any marks of distinction. He has introduced the four following sub-classes; *Thalamifloræ*, *Calyciflorœ*, *Coroll*iflorœ*, and *Monochlamydeæ*. The first three possess a double envelope to the flower, while the fourth has only one. The sub-class *Thalamifloræ*, which corresponds in some measure to *Polyandria* of *Linné*, though much more extensive, is described as containing flowers having numerous distinct petals, and stamens inserted into the receptacle and unconnected with the calyx. The next sub-class, *Calyciflorœ*, corresponds in a certain degree to *Icosandria* of *Linné*, and is characterized by petals numerous and distinct, or united one to another, and stamens inserted into the calyx. *Coroll*iflorœ*, the third sub-class, contains such flowers as present a single petal, inserted into the receptacle, and bearing the stamens. *Monochlamydeæ* consists of plants having a single envelope to the flower; either no petals being present, or, if present, so united to the calyx as to form with it one membrane. The plants of the first sub-class are again divided into five cohorts, each of which is again separated into orders. The first cohort contains the following eight: *Ranunculaceæ*, *Dilleniaceæ*, *Magnoliaceæ*, *Anonaceæ*, *Menispermeæ*, *Berbesideæ*, *Podophylleæ*, and *Nymphæaceæ*; of which only the first five are discussed in the present volume. Under each order are given the genera arranged in tribes, and under each genus the species of which it is composed. In this manner, when the work is completed, M. DE C. will present to us a kind of tree of botanical knowlege, exhibiting all the numerous and minute ramifications which it bears. Such a view of this department of science is certainly not by any means well adapted for the purpose of initiating the unlearned in a knowlege of botany; and, in all probability, its primary distinctions will be found liable to many weighty objections. It is, however, one which promises to be of very great value to those who have already made considerable progress in that science. Probably, the system of *Linné* will always continue to be taught in the schools of botany, and will still serve to guide the pupil in his endeavours to ascertain the systematic names of plants: but, as soon as he has acquired a competent intimacy with the objects of his study, he will turn with delight to some such map of the regions of botany as that which is promised by the author before us, and will trace with increasing gratification the connections and alliances that link

link together the multitude of individuals by which they are covered.

The leaning of M. DE CANDOLLE seems rather to be that of multiplying *genera*; which, in many instances, he has done with much apparent propriety: but to enter minutely into the merits of a work of such immense detail, and such erudite labour, would occupy a much larger space than we can spare for that purpose. We have examined, not without astonishment, the clouds of synonyms which are added under the several species; and the numerous references to dried specimens in the various collections, which seem to have been most diligently perused by the author.

The lover of botany will be delighted to find in this work an account of many of the hitherto unpublished discoveries of MM. *Humboldt* and *Bonpland*, as well as of other travellers. The extreme minuteness and extent of research, which M. DE C. has displayed in the present volume, when we consider how very small a portion of his undertaking it embraces, lead us almost to despair of ever seeing the undertaking completed: but it is to be hoped that the materials are already nearly all collected and arranged; so that, even should fate deprive us of his labours, some friend or pupil might still be enabled to finish the monument, which he has thus begun to erect to his botanical reputation. Owing to the length of time which has been consumed in passing the volume through the press, several additions and emendations are given at the conclusion, which we should certainly have been better pleased to see inserted in the preceding pages. Prefixed to the body of the work, is a valuable and copious list of writers on botanical subjects; and at the end is a very complete index of *genera* and *species*, which renders the publication of additional value as a book of reference, independent altogether of its systematic character.

We cannot conclude without again expressing the satisfaction which we have derived from a perusal of this volume; and we beg to encourage the author in the prosecution of a design which promises to be so valuable in the present enlarged state of botanical science.

ART. III. *Elémens de Physiologie Végétale*, &c.; *i. e.* Elements of Vegetable Physiology, and of Botany. By C. F. BEISSAU-MIRBEL, Member of the Institute. In Two Parts. 8vo. pp. 924. Paris. 1815.

IT is too generally the character of elementary works of science, that the task of perusing them is laborious for the student, and that they are uninteresting to those who are already

already acquainted with the subject. In our own language, however, we have a gratifying example of exception to this remark, in the Introduction to Botany by Sir James Edward Smith: although it must be admitted that, as it was the professed object of that author to render the science popular and intelligible to all, his publication possesses in consequence much less of a purely scientific character. The elementary botanical treatise of Professor *Wildnenow* is of a very different description. With all its excellences, and they are not few, it is too scientific for a mere beginner; while by those who have already made progress in botany, it will be found defective in arrangement, and by no means readily accessible as a book of reference.

The volumes before us, which we ought much sooner to have introduced to the notice of our readers, seem to combine in an admirable manner the character of a scientific with that of a popular work. Their author is already known to the public by many ingenious papers on botanical subjects, and by his *Traité d'Anatomie et Physiologie Végétale*; and he has now accomplished a task which, in our opinion, well entitles him to a distinguished place in the literary world.

Part I. is entirely occupied with an explanation of the principles of the anatomy and physiology of vegetables; and the second is dedicated to that part of the science which refers to the description and arrangement of plants. In pursuing this plan, M. MIRBEL first takes up the consideration of plants, as distinct from animals on the one hand and from minerals on the other; and he next treats on the organized tissue of cells and vessels which compose the vegetable frame. This last is a favourite topic of discussion with him, and has on former occasions furnished matter for the exercise of his ingenuity. We must be allowed, however, to doubt how far the very nice microscopical observations, to which he has subjected plants, merit our unreserved confidence; and how far it is possible for us to ascertain, as he has attempted, the peculiar function of each description of vegetable vessel. We beg to throw it out as a mere conjecture, that several of his mixed and fissured forms of vessel may be ascribed to a more or less partial detachment of the spiral coat which invests them.

The next subject here considered is of much interest; viz. the seed, and the processes which take place in the evolution of the plantlet. M. MIRBEL then goes on to give an account of those organs which ensure the preservation of the plant in life, and of the various functions which they perform to effect this object. The root, the stem both in monocotyledonous and

and dicotyledonous plants, the branches with their appendages, the bud, the leaf, — all in succession receive a due share of the author's consideration. He next passes to the chemical constitution of plants, and investigates the mode in which the sap is received, elaborated, and applied to the nutrition of the vegetable. On the subject of the chemistry of plants, he has added at the close of the first volume a memoir by that excellent chemist M. *Chevreul.*

From the conservative organs, and the topics just mentioned, the author advances to those organs which secure the continuance of the species by the formation of seeds; and he is thus led to discuss the anatomy of the flower, the several modes of inflorescence, and the functions of the stamen and pistil. The last of these objects is considered sufficiently in detail, and in the undisguised language of a follower of *Linné.* He is not, however, wholly wedded to the opinions of that great man, but appears to give full credit to the experiments of *Spallanzani,* and seems much disposed to doubt the existence of any thing corresponding to stamens in many of the cryptogamous tribes. The whole of his reasoning on this point appears to us to be conducted on the principles of sound logic, and deserves the careful perusal of those who are actuated by a blind partiality for all that has been written by the great Swedish naturalist.

Respecting the corolla, M. MIRBEL has given some interesting observations, which present a pleasing specimen of his manner:

'When the corolla is large, its form elegant, and its colours pleasing to the eye, while it exhales at the same time a grateful perfume, it is without question one of the most agreeable and the richest productions of nature. Those who are ignorant of the existence of sexual organs in plants see flowers on such only as present corollas or simple perianths of a delicate and brilliant texture. The freshness and splendor of the corolla depend on the extreme fineness of its texture; and the delicacy of its organization is the cause of the rapidity with which its beauty fades. — We have no instance of a black corolla: but many are white, yellow, blue, red, violet, &c. In some, several of these colours are softened and shaded into each other; while in others they are placed close together, without any intermediate tint.

'The colour of the corolla, and of those simple perianths and calyces which resemble the corolla in appearance, differ often in the same species without any obvious cause. The common Marvel of Peru bears indiscriminately a red, a white, or a yellow corolla; — the Eglantine, a yellow or scarlet corolla, &c. These varieties are not created by man, but arise from circumstances hitherto undiscovered, and which therefore cannot be produced at pleasure. When they shew themselves, they are eagerly seized by the cultivator, and

and preserved and propagated. Botanists not unfrequently remark these varieties of colour, even in plants growing in wild and remote situations. To mention one out of a thousand examples, *Pallas* found *Anemone pateus* with perianths sometimes blue, sometimes white, sometimes yellow, on the rude banks of the Volga and the Samara.

'The volatile oils elaborated within the tissue of the corolla are the usual sources of those odorous emanations, which flowers diffuse through the atmosphere. These odours vary infinitely, and their production results from a thousand causes external or internal, all of which we cannot equally appreciate. The temperature, also, to which flowers are exposed, renders their odours more or less perceptible. If the heat be too powerful, the volatile oils are dissipated more rapidly than they are produced; if the heat be too low, the oils remain concentrated in the cells in which they were elaborated; and in both cases the flowers diffuse but a faint odour: but, should the heat be neither in too great nor too small a degree, the volatile oils are exhaled without being dissipated, and form around the flowers a perfumed atmosphere. Hence it is that flowers have in general a more decided odour in the morning and evening, than during the night or in the middle of the day. We must not, however, regard this law as universal; because the action of the organs and the nature of the odoriferous particles produced by vegetation differ according to the species of plant, and give rise to modifications in the phænomena. The moisture of the air contributes also to render flowers more odorous, by penetrating the delicate texture of the corolla, and expelling the volatile oils from its cells.

'The greater part of flowers diffuse their odour without interruption, until they wither: but some are odorous only during the day, as *Cestrum diurnum*; others only during the night, as *Geranium triste*. Some, as those of *Arum Dracontium* and the *Stapeliæ*, exhale odours insufferably fetid, which attract insects subsisting on putrid animal substances: while very many exhale odours delightful to the smell: but, whatever may be the sensations produced by these different scents, it is ascertained that their effects on the nerves are stupefying and narcotic; and that it is dangerous to continue to respire them for any length of time.' (P. 266.)

From the flower, the author proceeds to the formation of the fruit, and the dispersion of seeds over the surface of the earth. Much nice distinction is introduced into the account of fruits, and a very liberal and judicious use is made of the work of *Gærtner*. An excellent sketch is given of every circumstance which is known on the interesting subject of dissemination, and the discussion is closed by the following animated passage:

'There are plants, such as the pellitory, the nettle, and the sorrel, which (if we may so speak) affect the society of man, and attend his steps. They grow along the walls of villages, and even

in the streets of towns; they follow the shepherd, and ascend with him the loftiest mountains. When in my youth I traversed the Pyrenees with M. *Ramond*, that learned naturalist more than once directed my attention to these vegetable emigrants from the plains, growing in the ruins of deserted huts, and preserving themselves there in spite of the severity of the winters, as monuments pointing out the former abodes of men and flocks.

'The dispersion of seeds completes the circle of vegetation. The shrubs and trees have lost their foliage; and the dried herbs are decomposed, restoring to the earth the elements which they had drawn from her bosom. The earth, in her dismal naked state, seems as if for ever deprived of her brilliant attire; although, at this very moment, innumerable germs wait only for a favourable sky to spring forth and decorate her again with verdure and flowers. Such is the prodigious fecundity of nature, that a surface a thousand times more extensive than that of our globe would not be sufficient for the seeds produced in one year, if they were all to be evolved: but the destruction of seeds is immense, only a very small proportion being preserved. These favoured germs, covered by the earth or the spoils of vegetables, or concealed in the fissures of rocks, or protected in some other manner, remain torpid during the cold season, and germinate as soon as the first warmth of spring is felt. Then the diligent botanist, who traverses the fields, and marks with inquiring eye the vegetable species with which the earth begins again to be clothed, seeing all the types of past years appear in succession, admires the power of nature and the immutability of her laws.' (P. 356.)

In the next section, the author considers the diseases of plants, and those injuries to which vegetables are subject from the numerous animals that feed on them, and make them the habitations of their young. By this contemplation, he is naturally conducted to the death of the plant.

'Thus terminates the existence of plants, according to the regular order of things. The earth which they decorated, during the period of their vegetation, is now enriched by their spoils; while vigorous germs, deposited in its bosom, give birth to new generations, to succeed those which have just perished; and the death of individuals becomes in this manner a kind of guarantee of the perpetual youth of the various families.'

We next come to that most interesting division of the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogamia, the knowlege of which is still so imperfect. A very clear and succinct account of the several tribes of these plants is given, chiefly from the works of *Hedwig*; although M. MIRBEL seems to differ in many of his opinions from that writer. The first volume of the Elements before us is concluded by general remarks on vegetation, which refer principally to the geography of plants, to the peculiar character of the vegetables on each great division of the

the earth's surface, to the causes which seem to give rise to these characteristic features, and to the effects produced on the climate of a country by the abundance or the deficiency of its vegetable productions. We would willingly, if we had room, present our readers with copious extracts from this section; the whole of which is distinguished for its ingenuity, its philosophical spirit, and the eloquence of the language in which the author has expressed himself.

On the subject of the vegetation of tropical countries, we have this admirable picture:

'Nothing can equal the magnificence of those forests which overshadow the equinoctial countries of Africa and America. We are never weary of admiring that infinite assemblage of vegetables, closely crowded and confounded together; so different from each other, and sometimes so extraordinary in their structure and products; — those enormous dicotyledonous trees, the origin of which carries us back to periods bordering on the last revolutions of our globe, and which as yet present no symptoms of decay; — those straight and taper palms, presenting the extreme simplicity of their habit in contrast with all that surrounds them; — those runner-like climbers; — those rattans, with leaves armed with thorns, the long and flexile stems of which interlace one with another, and by multiplied knots and windings unite into one groupe all the vegetables of those vast countries. In vain do we attempt to clear a passage through them by arming ourselves with steel or fire. The axe is blunted or shivered in pieces against the indurated wood; — the flame, deprived of air, is extinguished by the thickness of the foliage. The soil here is too scanty for the multitude of germs which spring up in it: each tree disputes, with those around that press on it, the ground required for its subsistence; and the strong suffocate the weak: new generations, rising up, conceal even the appearance of decay and death: vegetation never abates in activity; and the earth, so far from becoming exhausted, acquires from day to day increased fertility. Legions of animals of every kind, insects, birds, quadrupeds, reptiles, creatures as various as the indigenous plants of the soil, and not less extraordinary, retire into the profound recesses of these antient forests, as into citadels beyond the reach of the enterprises of man.' (P. 430.)

After having ably traced the progressive changes which the general features of vegetation undergo, as we advance from the countries of the Line to those of the Poles, and as we ascend from the base to the summit of very lofty mountains, the author proceeds to explain them with great ingenuity, as resulting chiefly from three causes: 1. the excessive length of the winter, occasioned by the obliquity and disappearance of the solar rays: 2. the dryness of the air, arising from its low temperature: 3. the prolonged action of

the rays of light, which, during the period of vegetation in polar regions, continues perpetually to illuminate the horizon. Many interesting details are given, which illustrate and sufficiently prove the efficacy of these several causes, in producing the changes in question: but for these we must refer our readers to the work itself.

Volume II. is wholly dedicated to Botany, properly so called. The first object here is the consideration of those general principles which ought to guide us, in laying hold of the strong and characteristic features of plants; and in separating them into species, genera, and families. The author next gives a rapid sketch of the rise and progress of Botany; enumerating not only those who have discovered, described, and arranged plants, but the philosophers also who have successfully investigated the anatomy of the vegetable and the functions of its several parts. He then presents us with a complete system of botanical terms in French, with accurate explanations. Almost all of these are derived from the Greek, and in general very legitimately. The French terminations, indeed, with which he has supplied them, often suit rather awkwardly: but, though they seem at present to possess little advantange over the corresponding Latin words, it is highly probable that these or some such terms will creep gradually into use, and thus render botany more generally intelligible and therefore more popular. If we have any fault to allege against this system of terminology, it is on account of the extreme minuteness to which it is carried.

A distinct account is given by M. Mirbel of the artificial methods of *Tournefort* and *Linné;* and a very detailed view, with examples, of the natural method of *Jussieu*, which is deservedly rising in estimation with the botanists of Europe. A very ingenious memoir on the laws of coloration, and their application to the purpose of forming a scale of colours for the use of naturalists, is furnished by M. *Merimé*, as an appendix to the present work.

The several details respecting the forms and structure of the different parts of plants are admirably illustrated by numerous plates, forming a thin volume, which are executed in a style rarely to be seen in our British publications. Many of them are representations of objects very highly magnified. They are all excellent: but we would more particularly direct the attention of our readers to those which refer to the germination of seeds.

In taking leave of this production, we are happy to say that we consider it as worthy of the friend and associate of *Cuvier*, to whom it is dedicated in a style of warm panegyric. It is certainly

certainly the most amusing, comprehensive, and accurate view of the elements of physiological and systematic botany that we know. Its style is lively, and often eloquent; and we are convinced that, if it were translated into our language, it would obtain from the public a flattering reception.

ART. IV. *Essai sur l'Administration de l'Agriculture*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Management of Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, and Provisions: followed by a History of the Circumstances which have conduced to the great Advances made by the Arts from 1793 to 1815. By CL. ANTHELM COSTAZ, one of the Secretaries of the Society for the Encouragement of National Industry. 8vo. pp. 420. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz, London. Price 10s.

THE celebrated reply of an old French merchant to the inquiry of the minister *Colbert*,—"How he could best promote the interests of commerce?"—"Let us alone"—ought to have struck so sagacious a man with a suspicion that the interference of government in matters of trade, however well meant, is very likely to be mischievous. *Colbert*, before he attained the lofty station which he filled with such honour to his own name and such advantage to his country, had himself been connected with a commercial house at Lyons, and probably had imbibed certain prejudices in favour of the superior advantages which trade and commerce, compared with agriculture, impart to a nation. In the *éloge* which M. COSTAZ passes on the memory of this great man, he compliments him, among other things, on his attention to the interests of agriculture; although it is well known that, embracing all the prejudices of the mercantile system, (a system, says Adam Smith, in its very nature and essence, of restraint and regulation,) he was not only disposed like other European ministers to encourage more the industry of the towns than that of the country, but, in order to support the former, was willing even to depress and keep down the latter. To render provisions cheap to the inhabitants of towns, and thus encourage manufactures and foreign commerce, he prohibited altogether the exportation of corn; excluding the inhabitants of the country from every foreign market for the produce of their industry; and this too at a time when the provincial laws of France imposed the most vexatious and absurd restraints on the transportation of corn from one province to another. * *Sully*, on the other hand, was hostile to the multiplication of

* Wealth of Nations, Vol. iii. p. 3.

manufactures, particularly those of luxury, as having a tendency, he thought, to enervate the population by too easy and sedentary a life. After *Colbert*'s time, a re-action took place in the sentiments of thinking people respecting this part of political economy; and, attributing the general depression of agriculture, which was experienced in every part of the country, to the preference which that minister had bestowed on manufactures, the French philosophers adopted another and an opposite theory: namely, that agriculture was the sole exclusive source of the revenue and wealth of every country. M. Costaz, who is not unacquainted with our English writers on the subject of political economy, (Steuart, Adam Smith, Lauderdale, and probably Malthus,) is right when he says that *Sully* started from erroneous premises in assuming 'that workshops are peopled by depopulating the country; and that, for every additional workman introduced into a manufactory, a labourer is withdrawn from the fields. He had not considered, and probably at that time of day no one had considered, that men multiply in proportion to their means of subsistence.'

'Without entering into those details which place this remark in the list of demonstrated truths, it is obvious that a greater abundance of the means of subsistence encourages those individuals to marry whom the fear of not being able to provide for their offspring would have deterred from forming such a connection; and that men are thus produced who would never have received life, or who would have died in their infancy from the want of food. A manufactory which is successfully established in any town furnishes the means of subsistence to all whom it employs; and those means are new, and as it were created. As long as it prospers, they are accessible to a great many individuals: but there is always an excess of population in towns, seeking employment, and which this new species of industry does not withdraw from the plough. Supposing, however, that each individual employed had been taken from the country, the space which that individual left would very soon be filled up. He was engaged in an useful occupation, to which were attached wages adequate for his subsistence; these wages being now unclaimed, sooner or later some one will offer himself for the vacant employment as the only means of obtaining the wages. But again: the workmen employed in a manufactory must subsist on the products of agriculture; there will be an increased demand, therefore, for those products, and an augmentation of the capital which maintains agricultural labour; so that, far from diminishing, it actually tends to the increase of that particular portion of population. *Sully*, therefore, in opposing the establishment of the silk manufactories, was influenced by inconsistent principles; for, while he was apprehensive of a diminution of labourers, he was actually endeavouring to prevent the adoption

tion of one of those measures which are the best calculated to increase them.'

Even in these enlightened times, a prodigious quantity of false reasoning prevails, with practical mischief flowing from it, on the subject of commercial regulations; and the interests of one set of merchants, manufacturers, &c. is played off against another, which latter seeks indemnity from a third, and so on, to the general detriment of society. British manufacturers sometimes complain that they cannot compete with those on the Continent, where, labour being cheap, the manufactured commodity can be afforded at a lower price: the consequence is a prohibition against the importation of French silks, laces, cambrics, &c. &c., to the injury of the general consumer, whom we compel to pay more for an article by twenty or thirty per cent. perhaps than it would cost abroad; and this is done in order to encourage some home-manufacture which is employing an unprofitable capital. Unnatural and forced prices being thus fixed on most articles of consumption, the farmer turns about, and complains that the unlimited importation of foreign corn reduces so low the price of the commodity in which he deals that it does not repay him the cost of its growth. He is accordingly propped up — at the expence of the consumer, likewise, — by a corn-bill. The case is just the same on the Continent; where the superiority of British machinery, and the superabundance of British capital, have enabled us to counterbalance the disadvantage of the high price of manual labour resulting from the increased artificial price of corn and all articles of consumption at home; and when, in consequence, we have been enabled to send our manufactured goods on the Continent, a similar outcry has been raised against the inundation in Germany, Flanders, and other places, of British manufactured commodities. Ghent has now and then made an *auto da fé*, a jolly bon-fire of them, for the gratification of its sapient citizens; and the good people of Germany have called out loudly for heavy prohibitory duties, in order to encourage such of their manufacturers also as are employing an unprofitable capital! Thus the wheel goes round. We all complain of the taxes imposed on us, and yet voluntarily ask for others to increase the burden. It seems to be overlooked that in all these cases there must be a reciprocal interchange of commodities; that if French, or German, or Italian, or Spanish, or Dutch goods are imported into Great Britain, a corresponding and proportionate value of British goods must be exported into France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and Holland, in order to pay for them; that the more we receive the more we send out

in return; and that the more free and unincumbered the intercourse is among all nations, the more beneficial it is to the consumers; that is to say, to the mass of people in all nations.* Every country possesses certain natural or adventitious advantages in particular branches of industry; and it is absurd to destroy or impede those advantages by diverting the employment of capital and labour into less profitable channels, and to aggravate rather than remedy the mischief of favouring one class by favouring some other, — both at the expence of the community.

France, within the last twenty-five years, having made great progress in arts and manufactures, it is the object of M. Costaz in the work before us to direct the attention of his countrymen to the measures which have led to a result so favourable to the prosperity of the kingdom; and really the principal cause seems to have been the liberation of domestic trade generally from much of that cumbrous political machinery, which had so long and so absurdly been employed for its protection. He goes back to a very early period of French history; noticing the regulations which at various times have been introduced for the encouragement of trade and manufactures, down to the commencement of the Revolution in 1789, under the government of Councils, Bureaus, Intendants, General-Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, &c. &c.: much of which complicated system was introduced by *Colbert*. As we might expect, these regulations often clashed with each other; and, from the multiplication of conflicting enactments, it was no very difficult matter for crafty individuals to evade those of which the operation was inconvenient to themselves: while, at the same time, by a malicious dexterity, they enforced others to harass and oppress some rival, whose rising prosperity it was an object to destroy. M. Costaz asserts that thirty octavo volumes would not contain the old ordinances which were in existence for the regulation of human industry.

As in England we have our companies, corporations, guilds, &c., so likewise in France, in the earlier periods of the

* On reading the tariffs established between different countries, and looking at the extent of the list of prohibited articles, we are tempted,' says M. Costaz, 'to suspect that these regulations were dictated by a belief that people could always sell without ever buying! To be convinced of the absurdity of this opinion, it is sufficient to reflect that, if commercial advantages were all in favour of one particular country, the ruin of those with which that country was connected must inevitably follow, and thus the very elements of its commerce with them would be destroyed.' (P. 213.)

monarchy

monarchy especially, similar charters, privileges, and immunities, were granted for the protection of particular trades. In feudal times, there as here, the power of the seigneurs had in a great degree superseded that of the crown, and was often exerted to the oppression of the people; so that it became desirable, therefore, for the latter to unite with their sovereign for the purpose of checking this power of the nobility. Various establishments of Louis le Gros, of Saint Louis, and of the successors of those princes, insensibly contributed to undermine that once overwhelming authority; till, under the ministry of Cardinal *Richelieu*, it was almost annihilated. This was an important if not a direct object of the early incorporations. When the executive power is feeble, an insulated individual may often be oppressed with impunity; but, when a common interest unites men into masses, such an attempt would first be defeated and next avenged.

In later times, a different object led to the appointment of vexatious offices under the most frivolous pretences. We must grant that we have seen *the King's Bug-destroyer*, and *the Queen's Rat-catcher*, announce themselves in large gold letters in this metropolis; and it therefore may not be very decent to laugh at the ridiculous offices of *contrôleurs—visiteurs de beurre frais, essayeurs de beurre salé, conseillers contrôleurs du Roi aux empilements de bois*, &c., &c. which, with many others, were created under Louis XIV. for the purpose of obtaining, as the price of these *greasy* honours, a miserable pittance for the cravings of a hungry and exhausted treasury.

M. Costaz truly remarks that the inutility or even the injuriousness of an institution now is no evidence that it was not once beneficial and even necessary; and, if trade required protection in stormy times against the exactions or plunder of powerful seigneurs, it was most effectually obtained by the union of individuals having a common interest; that is to say, by Companies. In course of time, however, these Companies, feeling the strength and consequence which they derive from union, are very apt to "turn the tables," and end by inflicting on others still greater evils than those which they had originally incorporated themselves to avoid. Some curious instances of such evils are here recorded: but the history of our own trading Companies is pregnant with similar facts; and, when a man's own house is made of glass, the old proverb says, it is not wise for him to throw stones.

'If (says the present author) the tables of population furnish any criterion to estimate the state of agriculture at different periods, they will prove that in France this science has been much improved since the year 1789. According to M. *Necker*, that kingdom,

kingdom, comprising Corsica, contained in 1785 a population of 24,800,000 persons: but at present it *exceeds twenty-nine millions*. The improvements are principally attributable to the Revolution. That subversion which it occasioned in the political existence and in the fortunes of wealthy men induced many of them to retire into the country: where, more enlightened than the old cultivators, they were enabled to appreciate the value of new methods of husbandry, and introduced them into practice. Others, witnessing their success, imitated them; and agriculture has thus been enriched by a variety of new and useful operations.'

'M. Costaz feels that the interposition of governments is not always necessary to make commerce and manufactures prosper; on the contrary, that it may be more injurious than useful: 'but it is otherwise,' says he, 'with agriculture, which in general can flourish only when assisted by their protection.' This remark may be true with respect to France, but it certainly is not with respect to England. We have indeed a Board of Agriculture, which has existed a great many years, and has collected much useful information: we shall therefore not say that it has cost the country more than it is worth: but every body knows that it has never had influence enough to procure any alteration in the present system of tythes, to obtain a general inclosure-bill, or in the slightest degree to relieve the landed-interest from the peculiar and ruinous disproportion of the poor's rate which it bears. Agriculture has received its great stimulus here from the enterprize and public spirit of private gentlemen, either in their individual capacity, or when they have formed themselves into societies for conducting and promulgating experiments.

A fertile soil and a benignant climate, exemption from tythes and exemption from poor-laws, may possibly have rendered careless the cultivators in France; while in England the difficulties which we have to encounter may have infused into us a commensurate spirit of exertion to subdue them. How should we have improved our breed of horses, says M. Costaz, if it had not been for the royal studs established in different parts of the kingdom?—and, but for Louis XVI. who was advised by his government to write to the King of Spain, requesting as a particular favour that he would send to France a flock of Merinos, how should we have produced our fine wools? Observe the sequel: the Spanish government prohibited the exportation of their sheep: but Louis XVI., as "the head of the house of Bourbon," solicited and obtained a flock from his royal brother of Spain; and another flock was afterward acquired by the treaty of Basle.

These

These were of course very carefully nursed at Rambouillet; and, the prejudices of the farmers against them being overcome, the breed was distributed, by annual sales, over all parts of the kingdom, the French administration sparing no pains to encourage it. Thus things remained till the year 1806, when the breed had increased beyond all expectation: some new regulations, however, were now deemed advisable more speedily to promote the views of government, — and these effectually destroyed them! It was determined to establish new folds, and flock them from the fine-wooled sheep already belonging to government *and to individuals*; and in a very few years it was supposed that the breed would have been quite pure, or at least that the crosses would scarcely have yielded to it in the fineness of their wool. This measure was accompanied by a decree *prohibiting the exportation of Merinos, and subjecting to a duty the exportation of their wool!* Here, indeed, was a leaf to take from the Spanish law-book! The natural consequence ensued: many of the proprietors of flocks, alarmed at a measure which was at once troublesome and injurious, absolutely sold them at less than prime cost; and from that day to this the breed has been stationary. M. Costaz condemns the measure; and it certainly is rather an unfortunate case to have been cited by an advocate for the 'protection' of government in favour of agricultural pursuits.

In England, every thing is effected by private capital and individual exertion: bridges are thrown over the broadest rivers; and canals intersect the kingdom in every direction. The want of equal facilities of transit for corn and other commodities is found exceedingly inconvenient in France: the price of corn at any one given time is nearly the same all over England, the expence of freight and insurance between any two parts rarely exceeding four or five shillings a quarter: — but, no longer ago than last year, France beheld some of its provinces in want of subsistence, while others were oppressed with a superabundance of which they could not dispose: the inhabitants of Burgundy, Franche-Comté, Lorraine, &c., were paying 70 or 80 centimes per pound for their bread, and those of Poitou and some other districts were buying it at a price varying only from 17½ to 20! This could not possibly have happened in England, or in any country in which the means of communication had not been miserably neglected. Where a deficient capital or want of enterprise is manifest among individuals, government may usefully step forwards in cutting canals, in lowering hills, and in raising causeways over vallies: these are works not exclu-

exclusively advantageous to the agricultural, commercial, or manufacturing interest, but equally to all: they are of national importance; and they are not calculated to foment those petty jealousies which are engendered by a narrow system of preferences and partialities. M. Costaz would have his government not merely cut canals for the benefit of agriculture, but increase the number of nurseries, botanic gardens, and establishments of that description. He may expect better results from the French Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, somewhat similar to that which has existed for so many years in London, and which distributes its premiums with a *disinterested* munificence and an unbiassed judgment that can scarcely be expected from a society formed by any government whatever. * The author will perhaps be astonished to hear of a body of private gentlemen, associated for those objects, having already expended in honorary and pecuniary rewards for useful inventions, discoveries, and improvements in every department of human industry and ingenuity, more than eighty thousand pounds sterling, advanced by the voluntary subscription of its members; that this Society includes various individuals of the highest nobility, with a Prince of the Blood at their head; that one of the conditions of receiving a bounty or an honour is the relinquishment of all pretensions to a patent for the articles so rewarded, and a permission to have them made and sold by any person whatever; and that this Society, formed fifty years ago, is not only now in existence, but is increasing in magnitude, splendour, and utility, having since the last distribution of premiums in 1817 elected two hundred new members. Agriculture, and the extension of plantations, have received more encouragement from this truly national institution, than the "Board" expressly established for that purpose has been able to confer.

M. Costaz has presented us with a very curious set of tables, exhibiting a comparative view of the state of the principal manufactures in different departments and towns of France, in the years 1789, 1800, and 1812: drawn up for the Minister of the Interior, in order to be presented to the

* *La Société d'Encouragement d'Industrie Nationale* was established in 1802, on very liberal principles, modelled (we believe) after the London Society. Whether its means have been commensurate with the views of the founders, we are not able to say: but that its benefits are extensive we cannot doubt; and the more extensive they are, the less occasion has it for courting government-assistance.

Legis-

Legislative Body in his *exposé* of the situation of France in the last of these periods. 'It is impossible,' says the author, who was one of the persons employed in the preparation of these tables, 'to conceive the labour which attended it. Desirous of attaining the utmost possible accuracy, we neglected no means of procuring the necessary documents: but, in spite of the most indefatigable pains, it cannot excite surprise if errors have crept in.' It is, indeed, very natural that manufacturers should listen with a suspicious ear to any inquiries made under the authority of government, respecting the number of workmen whom they employ, the amount of pieces woven, the value of the article, the principal markets to which they consign their goods, &c. &c. We find accordingly in these tables, which have all the appearance of having been formed with the utmost care and with extreme diligence of inquiry, that a great many blanks are filled up with the words "*pas connu*;" and it is very possible that, in some instances, returns may have been wilfully falsified. If they contain any approximation to accuracy, however, France must have been progressively and rapidly extending her manufactures; and it is much to be regretted that the tables could not have been brought down to the present time. The best criterion, perhaps, of the extension of any manufacture, is the increased or the diminished number of hands employed, because it is obvious that the number of *pieces* made is exceedingly delusive; — for instance, a lady's shawl of merino wool, to imitate the Cashmir, would as correctly be denominated *a piece* in the table as a long roll of many yards of broad cloth, or of blanketing. If the fashion, therefore, should have prevailed of wearing any small articles of silk, cotton, wool, &c., the increased number of *pieces* woven in consequence might lead to a fallacious inference as to the extension of the silk, cotton, or woollen manufactory in general. An opposite error, indeed, may result from taking alone the number of workmen employed as a criterion: because machinery is very much more used in France, as well as in England, now, than it was twenty or thirty years ago. If we find, therefore, in these tables a striking increase of workmen employed in any manufacture since the years 1789 or 1800, the probability is that the manufacture itself has been still more widely extended than the mere numerical increase of workmen would indicate. In the *woollen* manufacture, at Sedan, in the department of Ardennes, in the year 1789, 900 workmen were engaged; in 1800, no returns are stated, this branch having been almost annihilated: but in 1812 18,090 workmen were employed! Respecting Rheims, we have no returns of workmen either in 1789 or 1800: but in the

the former year 89,546 *pieces* were made, — in the latter, 67,091, — and in 1812 we find 19,965 workmen employed and 926,864 *pieces* fabricated! In a cluster of small towns in the department of Ourte, in 1789, the number of workmen was 25,670, and in 1812 it was 50,000. The *silk* manufactures in 1800 employed 3450 workmen, and in 1812 not fewer than 13,695; at Lyons in 1789, the number was 12,700; in 1800, they were reduced to 5800, but in 1812 they increased to 15,506. In the manufacture of *linen* at St. Quentin, 24,000 were employed in 1800; in 1812, the number had risen to 40,300! Lille contained 60,000 in 1789; only 26,000 in 1800: but in 1812 they amounted to 52,120. At Vimontiers, in 1789, they were 1680; in 1800, they had augmented to 8,300; and in 1812 to 16,480. Opposite results are occasionally though very rarely presented in these tables; and certainly, on the whole, they indicate a great rise in the manufactures and commerce of the kingdom.

Among the multitude of topics relating to the advancement of manufactures discussed or noticed by M. Costaz, (and which, by the way, serve in some degree as a scale to measure the public opinion,) are some which English writers would scarcely have deemed it necessary to agitate at this time. He takes the side of freedom in matters of trade: but it seems to us as if he sometimes felt himself treading on hazardous ground, and conscious of a certain temerity in promulgating his sentiments. One of the questions proposed is, whether it be adviseable that government should, on its own account, engage in any manufacture or commercial speculation? With respect to the latter, he says without hesitation, *No;* and we might have thought that the same obvious objections would have applied to the former; namely, the deficiency of vigilance and good management on the part of superintendants who have no immediate interest in the success of a concern, — the salaries of superfluous agents, — and a general want of economy, which must enhance to the consumer the price of the article. Here, however, M. Costaz recollects that the French government has a manufactory of Porcelaine at Sèvres; a Carpet-manufactory at Paris; one of Furniture (*de Meubles*) at Beauvais; and the Gobelins manufactory of Tapestry. It does not appear that any of these are profitable concerns under royal management, although it is extremely probable that they might become so under that of individuals: but *the first*, it seems, should be preserved as an establishment in which experiments that could not so well be undertaken [why not?] by individuals may be made in cer-

tain departments of art, which require to be brought to a higher state of perfection than they boast at present. Of the *two next*, he is contented to dispose: but, as to the Gobelins, 'it is truly a museum in which a most difficult problem has been resolved, that of producing pictures coloured and shaded by different tints of wool and silk: it is to the honour of a nation to possess it; and the government which should destroy it would deprive the country of one of its most beautiful ornaments. True, indeed, *its profits have not equalled its expences:* but, considering the lustre which it sheds over the national arts, were its losses still more considerable, there could be no hesitation in submitting to bear them.' (P. 95.) *

The art of making Tapestry, we believe, was carried to higher perfection in France than it ever attained either in England or in Flanders, where it is said to have originated; and that of the Gobelins is certainly very beautiful: — but so is the needle-work of Miss Linwood. Yet, notwithstanding its beauty, it is entirely out of fashion in France, as well as in England. This manufactory, if we mistake not, was introduced by *Colbert:* but the establishment at first, when under the direction of *Le Brun*, was not confined to tapestry, being composed of painters, sculptors, goldsmiths, watch-makers, and workmen of almost every description, whose pupils and apprentices here acquired their freedom.

Another question is gravely discussed, whether any favoured fabrics ought to be honoured with the title of "Royal Manufactures?" M. Costaz decides on the impolicy of restrictions as to the admissibility into any trades. Adam Smith notices the injustice of punishing the combinations which occasionally break out with great violence among workmen for raising wages, while no acts of parliament are made to restrain the much more frequent combination of masters for lowering them. We rarely hear of the one — the other makes noise enough: "but whoever," says Dr. Smith, "imagines upon this account that masters rarely combine, is as ignorant of the

* In another part of this work, (p. 207.) speaking of the disadvantages which France has sustained from granting exclusive privileges to certain trades and manufactories, the author again mentions that of Porcelaine at Sèvres, and attributes to those privileges the enormous high price of the article, which was in consequence inacessible to all but the opulent. 'Since the fabrication has been free, the price of Porcelaine is very much reduced: so that it is now not only to be found on the tables of the wealthy, but on those of persons in very inferior circumstances. It is, moreover, become an object of considerable foreign commerce, and is extremely profitable to the nation.'

world

world as of the subject. Masters are always and every where in a sort of tacit, but constant and uniform combination not to raise the wages of labour above their actual rate. To violate this combination is every where a most unpopular action, and a sort of reproach to a master among his neighbours and equals." — "They sometimes, too, enter into particular combinations to sink the wages of labour even below this rate. These are always conducted with the utmost silence and secrecy till the moment of execution;" &c. &c. Similar combinations, both among masters and servants, of course occur in France: but, in this respect, justice is there more even-handed than with us: for by the law of 22d Germinal (April 12. 1803,) masters are subject to penalties for combining to lower the price of wages, as well as servants for combining to raise them. This, however, is only playing off one evil against another: wages must fluctuate, not merely from the high or the low price of corn, but from the greater or the less abundance and consequent value of the circulating medium; and from the greater or less demand occasioned by the caprice of fashion for any particular article, &c. &c. Under the old French government, the actual price of labour was fixed by legal regulations in different manufactories; and the consequence was that both parties were almost always dissatisfied, the one complaining that it received too little and the other that it gave too much. M. Costaz advises that, when these disputes unfortunately occur, they should be referred to the arbitration of some indifferent parties; and he says that he has frequently known such references attended with the happiest results, even when the previous disputes had been carried on with a spirit of great exasperation on both sides.

Good sense marks the following observations relative to the emigration of workmen; and, still more, they display good feeling. In France, no prohibitory laws forbid a man to employ his skill and capital in any country in which he can make the most of them. Surely, people do not take the resolution of leaving their native land, and of breaking asunder all the ties of endearment which attach them to it, without having previously suffered excessive hardships; and then to restrain them is a cruel aggravation of their misery.

'Partial emigrations are not much to be feared,' says M. Costaz: 'a few insulated individuals will cause but little injury to the industry of a country. It is only when emigrations occur *en masse* that they are truly ruinous, when those manipulations which are sources of wealth to one kingdom are transferred to others; as was the case when the edict of Nantz was revoked,

one of the most fatal measures which the French government could adopt. The manufacturers and workmen who emigrated carried with them their capitals, which they employed in forming their ingenious establishments in foreign countries; and the evil which was thus occasioned required an age to repair it. Equitable laws are much better calculated to retain workmen round their own fire-sides than all the prohibitions which ever were enacted. Men do not think of quitting their country as long as they are protected and treated with kindness: but, if any should have different sentiments on this subject, it is possible for the local authorities to induce a change by employing the voice of persuasion. Indeed, it is difficult to refuse assent to the suggestions of a certain interest, skilfully presented to their view; such, for example, as the happiness of living in an industrious country, where the multiplicity and variety of employments offer sure means of subsistence. Some reflections, too, may be judiciously suggested as to the expence occasioned by removal; the little probability of success offered by the establishment which they are about to form; and the wretchedness to which they will be reduced if the foreigner abandons them, whose alluring promises, perhaps, were never intended to be kept. Should these persuasions fail, a more fortunate result may be obtained by throwing some difficulties in the way: for instance, it might be useful to delay, under different pretexts, the delivery of passports. Protraction may derange their combinations; and it may happen that an emigration which, if no difficulties had presented themselves, would have been carried into effect on the spur of the moment, will be deferred to an indefinite time by inducing the individuals to change their resolution. These methods have been successfully employed in several instances by the municipal authorities of some manufacturing towns; and a skilful administration, if it cannot entirely avert an evil in which human industry is concerned, may greatly neutralize its effect. The following is an instance of the good produced by wise measures in a moment of great difficulty. In 1797, the Commissary of the Executive Directory wrote from Brussels to the Minister of the Interior, informing him that, in defiance of the law of the first of Brumaire, an II. (October 22. 1793,) the paper-makers of Belgium refused to substitute in the *filigrane* of their paper the words *Liberty, Equality, French Republic one and indivisible,* for the marks previously used, which recalled the attributes of royalty or feudality. He required to be informed whether he should enforce the substitution; adding at the same time that it would very much injure if not absolutely ruin the paper-mills, *foreigners only buying their articles under the mistaken notion that they were fabricated either in England or Holland.* This affair threw the administration into much embarrassment: it could not by a public act stultify its own law; nor could it conceal the evil which must result from enforcing a regulation that would ruin the paper-manufacturers of Belgium. In order, therefore, to reconcile the interests of the latter with the respect due to a law solemnly enacted, it resolved to preserve an entire silence with regard to all de-

mands for instructions which might be made. This cautious measure preserved from ruin *establishments which employ more than thirty thousand workmen*; for, in the expectation of receiving some decision, they continued to fabricate their paper as if the order had not been in existence.' (P. 152.)

We feel a gratification, and the pleasure is not unmixed with pride, in perceiving that those liberal principles of commerce and trade, those *essential* principles of the *Wealth of Nations*, which our illustrious countryman illustrated and supported with such unanswerable arguments, are disseminated with grateful acknowlegements in France. His work has long since been translated: but it is probable that the study of it, from its diffuse and voluminous character, may have been confined to a limited number of curious inquirers. M. Costaz has imbibed much of his spirit; and in touching, however lightly, on the various subjects which are amply discussed by Dr. Smith, he is spreading a more general and sound knowlege of political economy than the mass of his countrymen before possessed. Homage, too, is paid to the liberality of the English character, and to the high mercantile rank that we hold among nations; which is in a great measure attributable to the enlarged principles that, although occasionally disregarded, generally influence our legislature in the concerns of commerce. We should almost have suspected that M. Costaz, however, was not a true Frenchman, if he had suffered a compliment to the English nation to escape him without paying adoration to that luminary which sheds an effulgence over the remotest corner of his own country, and animates every Frenchman, in whatever part of the globe he is placed, with the touch of an ethereal beam; namely, Paris. His flattery is truly amusing.

'It has often been said that Paris is the Athens of modern Europe; and this designation is appropriate in every respect. No where is literature, no where are the arts and sciences, cultivated with more success. The urbanity of its inhabitants is the delight of foreigners, who experience in their intercourse with them the highest enjoyment. Do they seek the society of learned men? No city in the world can furnish them with so distinguished an assemblage. Every where are the fashions of Paris followed: every where are its manners imitated or assumed; and its influence is not derived from a vain and transitory illusion, but from arts in their highest state of perfection, and from a sort of conviction that its existence is necessary to the welfare of man. The centre of intelligence and taste, it serves as a model to the rest of Europe whenever other governments are desirous of bringing their institutions to perfection; so that if by any event, which is improbable, it should ever be destroyed; if a despotic government or any other cause should reduce it to barbarism; other nations would

would suffer from the shock, and the re-action on themselves would be fatal to their own civilization. The perfection to which it has carried science, letters, and arts, has rendered it the capital of the learned world; and it inspires even illiterate and uncultivated foreigners with so lively a taste, that the greater part of them, when they return home, carry with them a painful regret at having left such a residence.' (P. 327.)

The sublimity of this invitation to visit the French metropolis is not entirely without a parallel; for we remember the advertisement of a recruiting serjeant, posted up in several parts of London many years ago, in which the country of the sable African is thus described: — "All high-spirited gentlemen-volunteers, who are desirous of living for nothing and saving their own pay, in a pleasant and plentiful country, where gold is as common as dust, and the common dust is gold-dust, whose curiosity may lead them to explore the fruitful shore of the Gambia, to sail upon the peaceful bosom of the Niger, and shake hands with renowned Carthaginians, are desired to repair to Serjeant Thompson, at the Cat and Fiddle in Fleet-Market," &c. &c.

Let us, however, resume the gravity which for a moment was interrupted by the venial vanity of a Parisian *Savant*. We have read M. Costaz's work with great satisfaction: its general principles, as we have before said, are those of Dr. Smith: it will be found to contain much information as to the past and present state of French manufactures and commerce; and it is calculated to relieve them from any existing shackles which may yet encumber their progress. In the year 1789, France was filled with privileged corporations; and it was in 1791 that the laws were abolished which crippled, while they attempted to regulate, the operations of human industry. Men, however, are not always sensible of their own interests; and habit and prejudice exercise so powerful an influence over them, that we are not surprised that certain manufacturers solicited the re-establishment of the old regulations. Government at first rejected their petitions: but in two instances, in consequence of erroneous representations, it was induced to yield. The one referred to the manufacture of soap at Marseilles; and the second to the trade in cloths with the Levant from Montpellier, Carcassonne, and some other towns in the south of France, which had been much injured by the war. In both these instances, M. Costaz assures us, the government very soon found reason to repent its acquiescence, and remedied the evil by rescinding the regulations.

Some sensible remarks will be found on the subject of the duration of apprenticeships, which was formerly regulated by law: but at present it seems to be not uncommon for a lad to be apprenticed for a longer period than that which is necessary to learn his business, the excess of time being received by the master instead of a premium when the boy is bound. To fathers of large families and small fortunes, this is a convenient arrangement; and the public is benefited perhaps by more accomplished workmen. — On the subject of Usury, we see some of the unanswerable arguments of Mr. Bentham urged, though he is not personally mentioned. In France, as in England, while individuals are restricted to an interest of 5 per cent., it has been not unusual for government to give more; and in 1817 the French ministry borrowed money at 8 per cent. Documents are given relative to the quantities of corn imported and exported, and to the state of the harvests for a series of years, which may be found interesting.

The concluding part of this volume furnishes an account of the several institutions formed, and measures taken, for the "developement" of the arts; for obtaining those branches of industry which the kingdom requires; and for bringing to perfection those which it already possesses. Every "*Tableau de Paris*" gives a list of these establishments; such as the Schools of Mines, Navigation, Engineers, Polytechnic Schools, Societies of Arts and Trades, &c. &c. &c. The mere repetition of this catalogue would be barren of instruction, and we shall decline it; noticing, however, with satisfaction two institutions, of which we did not previously know the existence in France, namely, *Caisses d'Epargnes et de Prévoyance*, and *Bureaux pour le Placement des Ouvriers*. The first appears to be precisely the same with our Saving-Banks, and has every where been attended with the happiest effects. The second is a Registry Office, where workmen out of employment may learn what manufacturers want hands: a very useful institution.

The storm of revolution, which swept over France, had nearly been attended with as fatal consequences as the revocation of the edict of Nantz. At one period, whole classes of people were designated by appellations calculated to render them odious, and these formed the pretexts of innumerable arrests. If a merchant or manufacturer, by the affluence of his circumstances, became an object of jealousy, however secluded in his habits, and however cautiously he had abstained from associating himself with any political faction, he was accused, in the jargon of the times, of *negotiantisme*, and was in danger of perishing by the hands of the executioner. Com-

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merce was on the brink of annihilation, and merchants, manufacturers, artists, workmen, all fled for safety into foreign countries, particularly from the departments of the Upper and Lower Rhine, of the Rhône, of the Lower Loire, and of the Gironde. The moderation and good sense of some individuals, however, soothed the revengeful spirit of the day; and, impressing the government with a conviction that these emigrations of the industrious classes must entail inevitable ruin on the country, they at length obtained permission for the return of those who had been proscribed. Lyons, which the revolutionary axe had deprived of a great number of its most useful artizans, profited much by this permission: the emigrants from that city being not only invited to return under the solemn assurance of personal safety, but being furnished with sums of money for that purpose; and thus were its manufactories restored, after a temporary suspension. The merchants, artizans, &c. of the Upper and Lower Rhine, of Nantz, Bourdeaux, and Marseilles, adopted the same plan; and the commerce of these cities resumed its activity fortunately before it was quite extinct. France is yet much behind England in the use of machinery, and is indebted to this country for much of what she possesses. Such obligations we ought willingly to confer and thankfully to receive. We are both great nations, and have been very quarrelsome neighbours: but may all things in future "be so ordered and settled upon the best and surest foundations, that peace and happiness, truth and justice, religion and piety, may be established among us for all generations."

ART. V. *Principes de la Stratégie*, &c.; *i. e.* Principles of Strategy, or Military Science, exhibited in a Detail of the Campaign of 1796 in Germany; translated from the German Work attributed to his Imperial Highness the Archduke CHARLES. With Maps and Plans. 8vo. 3 Vols., and folio Atlas. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 2l. 14s. 6d. sewed.

AT a time when Europe is enjoying the blessings of repose from the arduous contests in which she has been for so many years engaged, it is to be conjectured that military history and science will derive very important additions from the matured knowlege of the able Generals, whom such a protracted state of warfare has created. In our country, "war's vast art" has seldom received any important theoretical illustrations: we have contented ourselves with admiring the results of the operations carried on by our ablest warriors; and we have not thought of benefiting our military youth by

detailing and explaining the principles on which these operations were conducted. In fact, therefore, the education of our officers has been far from being what it ought to be; and they have received information on almost every subject except the one to which they are professionally dedicated. The consequence has been that they were formed principally in the field, instead of bringing with them into action the knowlege which they should previously possess; and it may be said with truth that the great Generals of England are indebted only to native talents, and fortuitous occurrences, for the lustre which they have shed on her arms.

Hitherto, the case has been different with other European nations: their armies have been officered by men whose early as well as mature days were spent in qualifying themselves for their profession; and it is thus that, though they cannot make the prowess of Britons succumb, they force us to acknowlege their superiority in the theory of war. Of late, however, the military relations of England have been so widely extended, that a new era in the history of its army is opening; and every true soldier hails the dawn of the glory which his compeers may attain by their literary as well as by their physical powers, fully persuaded that the boast of being the only excellent theoretical Generals may soon be no longer asserted by our continental neighbours. England has never been higher in the scale of human estimation than when she has shewn the world the energy with which she has repelled her invaders, or the promptitude with which her armies have assisted the threatened liberties of other nations. In the early days of her military history, her Edwards and her Henrys had no rivals; in later times, Marlborough stood highest amid the proud yet admiring circle of his competitors for glory; and we live in an age in which Wellington has immortalized his name and his country.

With such an example as that which we have just quoted, it is but reasonable to imagine that, should this country be again engaged in any struggle, the minds of our youthful warriors will have been so much stimulated to emulate their leader, that we shall see numerous examples of brilliant talents united with intrepid valour; and therefore we look with much interest to any work which is likely to afford improvement and information to those officers who wish to attain eminence in their vocation. Still, unfortunately, we cannot yet call the attention of our readers to an English performance of this nature, but must turn our eyes to that country whose capital contains what may be justly termed the Military Press of Europe. Amid numerous publications of the same kind,

Paris has lately sent forth one which derives importance from its nature, and from the illustrious men who are concerned in its appearance. Of this work we have given the title at the head of the present article; and we learn that it is a translation, under the inspection of General *Jomini*, from a German original which is prevalently attributed to the pen of the *Archduke* CHARLES. We need not enlarge on the talents either of its alleged author or of the General who has conducted the translation, and whose valuable notes and commentaries have so much enhanced its estimation. Those talents are already well known to every person in any degree conversant with military affairs; and we shall therefore enter at once on our task of noticing the different parts of this publication.

The motive, which engaged his Imperial Highness to give his ideas on this subject to the world, appears to have been a conviction of the necessity of reducing the science of war to principles; and, by details of celebrated actions, of pointing out in a concise manner the different objects with which a military man, and particularly a General, ought to be acquainted. His first words will clearly explain his reasons for the undertaking: 'The design of this work is to contribute to form Generals for the service of their country. A General who is at the same time wise, experienced, and intrepid, is in a manner the richest gem in the crown of his sovereign. The prosperity as well as the ruin of the state are in his hands. Forced to take instantaneous and decisive resolutions, amid the tumult of camps and the crash of battle, he must often seal the fate of many millions of men, without having time even for reflection.' He then proceeds to shew how requisite it is that men, who aspire to command, should prepare their minds by a long course of study, in order to render them capable of forming immediate resolves with an accuracy and solidity which shall admit of little doubt as to the result. The idea, occasionally expressed, that the General, like the poet, *nascitur, non fit*, is ably refuted by his Highness, who plainly evinces the absurdity of such a notion. He observes that 'a man does not become a great captain but with an ardour for study, assisted by long experience. He cannot, however, rely solely on what he has himself seen; for what man's life witnesses such a fecundity of events, that he can through them obtain universal experience? Undoubtedly, genius is born with us, but the great man must be formed; genius is not the edifice; it is merely the foundation.' A person without talents or scientific knowlege may make a tolerable General, provided that he has only strength of mind enough to be in-

flexible in his determinations, and that he makes use of the experience which he has gained: but what an advantage over such a man has the genius who matures his mind by previous study and reflection, and who avails himself of all the excellences of his precursors in glory, as well as of the knowlege which he has personally obtained? A single sentence in this preface will suffice to shew that the able General, who is understood to have written it, derived every benefit which the abilities of other officers afforded him. 'This work,' he says, 'is the fruit of the reflections and experience of the author, enriched with those of others.'

The first chapter treats of the Principles of Strategy, if, following this work, we may here introduce such a word, (formed from Στρατηγὸς, and Στρατηγεία, *leader of an army*,) which is defined to be the science of war; or, more properly speaking, that part of the science which comprehends the duties of Generals in chief: the author distinguishing *strategy* from *tactics* by making the former the projective or scientific branch, and the latter the art, or executive branch. General *Jomini*, in a note, informs us that he regards this distinction as rather too far fetched: but here we do not agree with him, since nothing in our opinion tends to give a clearer idea of any subject, than to develope its parts in as distinct a manner as the nature of the case will admit. Although, therefore, modern authors make the attainment of the method of conducting an army in the field *an art*, yet, as various branches of knowlege depend on it, and it requires a train of deep reflections to bring ideas of it into practice, we should rather drop that term, and assume the more reasonable one of *science*. If any commentary on this departure from the usual routine be offered, we should rather differ with the author for making *strategy* the *science* and *tactics* the *art* of war; because, as we have already observed, they are only distinct branches of the same science.

Section I. points out the difference which exists between strategy and tactics. The second shews the characteristic traits of the former, and is accompanied by a plate, explanatory of the author's meaning; it demonstrates the manner in which a General should take up his base and follow his line of operations, so as to cover his rear, and place the country which he is to defend and his supplies in the most secure position: at the same time that he adopts the most certain methods of pursuing the objects of the campaign with success. The third and fourth sections treat of strategical points and lines, or the most desirable positions for carrying on connected operations. Sect. V. embraces an

important subject, the base of operations; on a thorough knowlege of which, and of the line that is to conduct him to his object, depends the whole of the future decisions of a General in the conduct of a campaign. 'The base of operations,' says the illustrious author, 'is formed by a line of contiguous points, in the proximity of which may be found all the objects necessary for the army, with sufficient means and opportunities for transporting them to the different positions. It is therefore of the utmost consequence that the base, as well as its communications with the army, should be constantly covered by the positions which are to be established, or by the movements which are to be executed.'

The sixth section consists of an explanation of plans of operation; the seventh, of defensive positions; and the eighth explains the advantages of strategical knowlege. It is here asserted that strategy prepares the battle, and leaves to tactics the care of gaining the victory: but we suspect that more battles have been gained by the strategical than by the tactical knowlege of Generals; and we are perfectly of opinion with the French translator, that this maxim in general holds good only when two armies encounter in mass, after having disputed the strategic points, and that a victory may be gained by tactical experience when the General fights on a given ground. The victories of *Napoleon Bonaparte* were more frequently the result of a train of preconceived operations, than of the mere mechanical direction of his troops. His adversaries at Ulm, Austerlitz, &c. were equally able to conduct their armies to the immediate combat, yet appeared to want the notions of rapidly forming and following up decisive ideas: while *Bonaparte* possessed a thorough knowlege, as all Generals should, of both these branches of the science of war, and was able to take advantage of the faults committed in either by his opponents: — the one is therefore as essential as the other, but an acquaintance with strategic principles is the most important. The battle of Waterloo was gained by both. The base of operations which the Duke of Wellington had conceived and occupied was so well imagined, that nothing could prevent him from supplying the deficiencies which were occasioned by the casualties of the action; it was in vain that *Napoleon* employed, with the utmost of his power, those tactical notions with which such an extent of practical knowlege had imbued him; the combined talents of France could not for a moment make the slightest alteration or impression on the British line of operations; and hence it is that military men find it so difficult to decide whether they should most admire the English leader as a strategist or as a tactician; for

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in the former quality he surpassed his renowned opponent; and in the latter was equalled only by him.

In this section we meet with a remark which appears so extremely novel as coming from the pen of a continental warrior; and which so well agrees with the notions entertained in this country, that we cannot refrain from translating it: but it proceeds not from the pen of the Archduke, it is from that of his commentator, the General *de Jomini*: — 'The best fortresses are patriotism, attachment to the order of established things, vigour in the government, and perfect union not only among the people, but between the people and their rulers. With such elements, France would do more than she could effect with the most formidable ramparts.' Again, at the end of the first volume; 'When a state finds itself reduced to throw the best part of its forces into fortifications, it is then drawing towards its destruction.'

The Imperial author, however, is of a different, or at least of a distinct, opinion; for he asserts that the construction of fortified places on proper points is absolutely requisite for the welfare of a state. With reference to small kingdoms, there may be some truth in this position: but we have lately had a tolerably good specimen of the inutility of multitudes of fortifications, in the ease with which they were turned by the allies, and the difficulties into which they threw the French army in order to supply them with garrisons. On a frontier, it cannot be contested that a few judiciously situated fortresses may prove of the utmost importance: but, beyond a certain number, they are not merely useless, they afford the means of hastening the downfall of their possessors.

The second chapter contains the Application of Strategy to a given Theatre of Military Operations; and the author endeavours to illustrate the maxims which he has advanced by supposing a given space of known territory to be under the occupation of two adverse armies, who have certain objects to gain. We must allow that the subject is treated in a very able manner; and that the country which he has chosen as his field of war is also well selected. It is that part of central Europe which is shut in by the Rhine on the left, the Mayne and the Eger on the north, the Elbe and the Moldaw on the east, and the Enns, the Tyrolese and Salzburg Alps, and the Lake of Constance, on the south. Without entering into an explication of his ideas and reasonings on this head, it will be sufficient to observe that the demonstrations are ably shewn; and that, with the exception of rather too much attention to minutiæ, the chapter is well calculated for its intended object. A good map of the whole

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confess that this system of requisition, or of forcibly taking possession of all the resources of a country, is one of the greatest miseries which can befall it: but the measure is essentially alleviated if practised in the way in which British Generals have ever acted; that is, if the people are paid for the articles which they are forced to supply.

In this section, the author touches briefly on the benefits derived from making the trains of convoys and baggage as light as they can be rendered; and we would beg leave to say a few words on that subject particularly as it applies to British armies. Our troops seldom take the field without having such immense trains of personal baggage, servants, horses, mules, and carts, that they have frequently been the object of ridicule to the French, who style this equipage "*l'attirail Asiatique des Anglais.*" Now, when an army takes the field, it must be evident that the less the General and the officers have to attend to personal concerns, the more they are likely to accomplish the objects of the campaign: for, if a man's mind be embarrassed with the constant fear of losing his property, how can he pay the necessary attention to his duties, and be always able to move on the shortest notice? We may be answered that, unless an officer takes his baggage, he cannot preserve that cleanliness and regularity which are so conspicuous in British troops: but the reply is simple; viz. the necessaries of a soldier are few in number, and those of an officer ought to be equally limited. Nothing will tend more to keep up the fame which the English army has so justly gained, than to make every officer a soldier, instead of a fine gentleman. Let him have as much baggage as he pleases on home-service: but, once about to take the field, let those things which are *necessary* alone accompany him.

Volume I. concludes with a few examples of the importance of particular positions being occupied by invading armies, and as an instance remarks how requisite it is in Germany that a force penetrating that country should make itself master of the valley of the Danube: in proof of which the war of 1796, the victories of *Moreau* in 1800, and the campaigns of 1805 and 1809, are cited. This section also prepares us for the second volume, by shewing that the study of military history is necessary to a General who wishes to apply the maxims of strategy to actual circumstances.

Volumes II. and III. are therefore devoted to an elaborate detail of the operations of the celebrated campaign of 1796; with a view that the military leader shall form his judgment on the efficacy of the principles which have been laid down. These volumes consequently embrace two important objects: they

they serve as a commentary on the opinions and axioms of the illustrious writer, and they give a clear and unembarrassed military history of a campaign which will ever be an object of study with military men, and which holds out such striking lessons for Generals who aspire to renown.

We shall quote two or three introductory paragraphs:

'History, intended for the instruction of man, is also the best school of the art of war. It demonstrates the excellence of received principles, in exposing the different results which care or negligence in observing them has produced; and it teaches by examples the most suitable manner of applying them.

'The nature of the ground determining the order and the march of operations, it is requisite, in the first place, to have a thorough knowlege of the theatre of war; and to take into account its different qualities, in order to lay the foundation of a solid judgment on the military events which may there be destined to occur.

'In this point of view, no examples can be more instructive, and more capable of answering the end of this work, than those of the campaign of 1796 in Germany, of which the different scenes were acted on the theatre described in the preceding volume.

'The intention of the author is not to depreciate the operations carried on by justly esteemed Generals. He knows that it is easier to judge of events after they have taken place, in the calm of reflection, and with an exact knowlege of the resources of each party, than to form an unerring decision at a critical moment. It will therefore be an unfounded suspicion to imagine that the observations in this performance arise from jealousy, or from presumptuous criticism. He takes up the pen only to extend the benefits of instruction, and to propagate military notions of a superior order. The history of the campaign of 1796 must, then, be considered only as the developement of the principles of strategy, and of tactics, which he has laid down in the first part of his work.'

We are not disposed, however, to regard the last two volumes as merely developing the principles laid down in the first: for, while we fully acquit his Imperial Highness of any sinister motives for the blame which he feels constrained to cast on the Generals concerned, we think that his details are equally creditable to his talents as an historian and to his fame as a commander. Indeed, the French editor's note, at the end of the second volume, will shew that the Archduke deserves to be reckoned as an impartial writer; and, since this note proceeds from a man who acknowleges that his feelings are wounded by several of the historian's observations on his countrymen, it is the more worthy of notice.

'*Eugene*

'*Eugene* and *Frederick* sometimes allowed that they were in fault, but a similar confession * never escaped their lips: the Archduke does more; guided by the love of truth and of his art, he perpetuates the recollection of his faults by engraving them on the tablets of history, and thus shews himself superior to those sentiments of pride which are so apt to arise in the mind of a General who has effected great achievements.'

Chapter I. of Volume II. contains a sketch of the campaigns of 1792, 1793, 1794, and 1795, in France, in the Netherlands, and on the Rhine, with the causes of them. It thus commences:

'The revolution which burst forth in France in 1789 made rapid strides; it sapped the foundation of the rights of sovereignty in all nations, and particularly in the countries bordering on that kingdom; so that the most powerful princes of the German empire deemed it incumbent on them to avert the storm, by coalescing at Pilnitz, in 1791.†

'The first and principal object of this coalition was to defend the dignity and the rights of Louis XVI., to re-establish tranquillity in the interior of his states, and to guarantee that of the neighbouring powers. But before this was even formed, the upstarts who then held the rudder of the state in France had determined that war was the most certain means of exciting republican fanaticism; and the powerful faction of the Girondists wished to take advantage of it, to give a turn to the effervescence of the nation by directing it towards an external object. They wanted no pretext to light up its flames; on the 20th of April, war was declared against the house of Austria; and immediately hostilities commenced by unsuccessful attacks in the Netherlands.

'The coalesced princes also armed: but they imagined that they should find France a prey to anarchy and disorganisation, without resources, without energy, and incapable of resisting invading armies. They trusted, also, that at their approach a powerful party would declare themselves in their favour, and they entered the lists with only a small force.

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* The passage to which General *Jomini* here alludes is this: 'Lastly, if we compare the manœuvres of *Moreau* and those of the Archduke, from the end of June to the middle of August, we shall find that they are in direct opposition to the principles here established,' &c.

† 'It is allowable to suppose that the author has not been accurately informed of the motives which dictated the treaty of Pilnitz. The revolution was a great evil, but this treaty has been another. Its immediate effects were to precipitate the downfall of Louis XVI., to create the territorial grandeur of France, and to augment the maritime power of England. This, however, is not the occasion for entering on a political discussion, in order to render these truths more evident.' *Note of the French editor.*

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'An army of Prussians, Austrians, and Hessians, penetrated into France in the autumn of 1792; but no measures had been taken to assure any success answerable to the importance of its destination; and this first fault was punished by the disasters of an unfortunate campaign, by a harassing retreat from the plains of Champagne to the Rhine, by the immediate loss of Mayence, and soon afterward by that of the Netherlands.'

These remarks are followed by a cursory review of the campaigns, preparing the way for a description of the opening of the great contest of 1796. The second chapter is usefully employed in detailing the force of the opposing armies, their plans of operation, and their positions. The third relates the conquest of Italy by *Bonaparte*, with the retreat of the Austrians on the right bank of the Rhine; and the remaining chapters of the second volume are devoted to the details of operations, up to the battle of Neresheim and the retreat of the Archduke on the right bank of the Danube.

We quote a short passage from one of the chapters respecting the conduct of *Moreau*, on the day of the battle of Neresheim:

'The conduct of *Moreau* during the action was able and prudent; neither the loss of Heidenheim, nor the manœuvre which menaced the turning of his right wing, nor the demonstrations on Bossfingen, could induce him to alter his course: his presence of mind was admirable; and he held with firmness the position which he had chosen with discernment.'

We forbear from transcribing portions of the details of the campaigns in this volume; and from commenting on them farther than to remark that they are well written, and embrace many minute relations which are very little known. The conquest of Italy by *Bonaparte* is stated in a few words. Having observed that he took some advantage of the want of foresight in his enemy, the Archduke thus proceeds:

'*Bonaparte*, by a rapid march along the Po to Plaisance, when he crossed that river, not only profited by his advantages, but knew how to derive the most useful consequences from them, in obliging the Austrians to make an absolute retreat. In a few days, he rendered himself master of Italy, dispersing the Imperial troops rather by his marches than by combats, and without a regular battle; for the passage of the Adda at Lodi was merely an affair of the rear-guard.'

The third volume continues the History of the Campaign to the Siege of the *tête de pont* of Huningen, and a slight sketch of the operations in the year 1797; concluding with the peace established by the treaty of Campo Formio. This volume

volume is as ably written as the second: but it contains in general only a minute detail of all the manœuvres of the opposed armies, which do not admit of distinct portions being transcribed without breaking the thread of connection; and we shall therefore confine ourselves to the few remarks and conclusions which are drawn from these results. We are disposed to think, however, that the work would have been much improved, if the illustrious author had more frequently given his ideas on the demonstrations of the principles esfablished in the first volume, which so often present themselves during the course of his history: but he seems to imagine that the reader, who takes up the performance with an intention of studying it, is already sufficiently master of the subject to draw his own conclusions, and therefore scarcely ever goes aside from the straight road of narrative. It is certainly to be regretted that he takes this course; for we fear that most of his readers will peruse the two concluding volumes rather as forming a mere history, than as developing the grand principles which they are intended to elucidate.

The ensuing ideas on the employment of cavalry are worthy of notice:

'The manner of employing each arm is referable to its nature, and should form one of the first studies of a General. Infantry act equally on the march and in position; entirely independent, they oppose every where a determined resistance: but the case is not the same with respect to cavalry. Its effect is purely offensive, and results from a degree of bounding force in the horses of which the maximum is only obtained by a progressive movement. Cavalry ought therefore to be formed at a sufficient distance from the point of contact, and should have a length of career adequate to make them reach it with the utmost possible impulse. The highest degree of this impetus is only momentary, and exhausts itself against a firm resistance. Thus, wherever infantry and cavalry behave equally well, the former gain as much advantage over the latter as they can derive from their fire, before the cavalry has acquired its greatest force: but, when squadrons attack others in front, victory depends generally on the most trifling incident.'

The whole article is too long for translation, but contains, both in the text and in the notes of the French editor, many excellent observations: one of which inculcates the principle of never mingling infantry and cavalry in the line of action; because, when both are to act simultaneously, the infantry lose their independence and become embarrassed by the horses, while the cavalry are equally paralyzed by the masses of the infantry.

Chapter

Chapter XVI. contains an interesting account of the siege of Kehl, which we would advise every officer of engineers to study; and in the seventeenth the siege of the *tête de pont* of Huningen is equally well detailed.

The concluding section shews the object of the Archduke in chusing the campaign of 1796 to illustrate his positions. He observes: 'This campaign presents, in the war between Austria and France, the first example, since 1792, of the application of the principles of Strategy in their utmost extent. In Germany, as well as in Italy, victory declared itself always for the General who departed the least from its rules.' He then proceeds, in a very concise manner, to point out the strategical faults which were committed in that campaign, but refers us to the history and to our own minds for farther elucidation: concluding by remarking that 'the solidity and stability of the base, and the security of the communications, form the fundamental principles of an offensive or a defensive plan of operations; that the possession of strategic points is in both cases necessary and decisive; that open force, or manœuvres directed against the enemy's communications, are the only means of gaining and defending them; and, lastly, that promptitude in decision as well as in execution forms a necessary qualification for success in all enterprises.' The final paragraph is worthy of observation: 'Austria succumbed, because she opposed to a plan founded on an excellent system of fortifications, and combined with a thorough knowlege of the theatre of war, only her valour, the perfect organization of her army, and some glorious feats performed by her Generals.'

This work is accompanied by a port-folio, containing twelve plans illustrative of the theatre of war in 1796, and of the battles and sieges here described; of which the twelfth serves the double purpose of explaining the history, and the chapter which treats of a given theatre of war in the first volume. The 9th, 10th, and 11th are particularly useful in studying the sieges of Kehl and Huningen; the approaches, and all the military operations, being distinctly laid down on a large scale. The battle of Malsch is drawn on the 2d plate; that of Neresheim on the 3d; that of Wurtzburg on the 5th; that of Biberach on the 6th; and the rest contain plans of different actions recorded in the history, with an excellent map of the operations which took place between the Lahn and the Seig. These plans are lithographic; and we may safely assert that they afford some of the best specimens of that art which have ever appeared before the public, as illustrating military affairs. We cannot

forego the opportunity which this circumstance gives us, of enforcing on the minds of military men the utility of engraving their sketches in this manner. The expence, when balanced against copper-plates, is trifling; and every officer, who can draw, may thus, without exerting himself laboriously, employ his time in a manner equally pleasing to himself and advantageous to the public.

On the whole, we may recommend this work to all members of the military profession who are desirous of improving their minds by a knowlege of their art; and particularly to those who, having seen some service, are able to comprehend the ideas of the author with comparative facility. We wish that it may be the means of drawing forth productions of a like kind from the pens of some of our leaders; and that we may soon be in possession of a strategic view of the Duke of Wellington's campaigns.

Art. VI. *Biographie Universelle*, &c.; *i. e.* Universal Biography, Antient and Modern. Vols. V. to X. 8vo. Paris.

In our lxxiid volume, p. 470., we noticed the third and fourth parts of this excellent and comprehensive Biographical Dictionary. The lives, however, are less carefully compiled than the literary history of authors; the bibliographical notices being more complete and correct than natal or obituary dates. So remarkable an attention is paid to proportionate length, that a man's celebrity may be measured by the allowance of inches of letter-press. A list of the co-operators is prefixed, which is more numerous and less select than in the earlier volumes; some names have disappeared, but not those of the higher order. In proof of the alert information of the authors, we shall transcribe the life of a native of these islands, who has escaped the observation of the editors of our General Biography and of the Universal Biography.

"Bowles, *William*, a native of Ireland, went to settle in Spain, and published there in 1775 a quarto volume intitled *Introduccion a la Historia natural y a la Geografia fisica de España*, which work was so successful as to attain a second edition at Madrid in 1782. It was translated into French by Viscount *Flavigny*, at Paris, in 1776; and it was translated into Italian, and enriched with notes, by the Chevalier *Azzara*, at Parma, in 1784. A second and truly curious work of natural history by Mr. Bowles is the *Histoire des Sauterelles d'Espagne*, Madrid, 1781; during the impression of which book, he died. Mr. Bowles has inserted in the Transactions of the Royal Society of London a Memoir on the Mines of Germany and Spain."

Here are many vacancies to fill up: but probably some Irish patriots could supply the date of birth, the profession, and the principal circumstances in the life of Mr. Bowles, which deserves to be more correctly and completely recorded in English.

From the sixth volume we will extract a new life:

'CABARRUS, *Francis, Count of,* was born at Bayonne in 1752, and was intended for his father's counting-house. He passed his school-years at Toulouse; and, when a youth, he was placed in a commercial house at Zaragossa, under M. *Galabert*, where he acquired the Spanish language with great perfection: he also fell in love with the daughter of M. *Galabert*, and married her privately. This match displeased both the families: but the father-in-law was disposed to make the best of it, and established young *Cabarrus* at Caravanchel, near Madrid, in a soap-manufactory of which he undertook the management. With the Abbé *Guevara*, who edited the gazette of Madrid, *Cabarrus* soon became much acquainted, and was introduced by him to literary circles, in which he was made known to Count *Campomanes*, and *Olavides*. These connections inspired *Cabarrus* with ambitious ideas, which circumstances favoured. The government of Spain, during the American war, incurred some financial embarrassment; the minister of finance was disposed to consult experienced accountants; and thus M. *Cabarrus* was presented to him. He suggested the creation of *royal notes*, as they were called, a sort of exchequer-bills bearing interest, to be renewed annually with the interests added, in case the whole issue could not be discharged during the year. These *royal notes* tempted the speculators, and were apparently successful. *Cabarrus* next proposed to found the bank of Saint Charles, which was created by letters-patent, 2d June, 1782, and was a joint-stock-company, advancing for its capital 15 millions of piastres in small shares of 2000 rials each. This bank was intended to take up the royal notes, and thus every thing changed hands without discredit: but the bank-shares presently became objects of speculation at Paris, where *Mirabeau* wrote against them. *Cabarrus*, however, had his Memoir prohibited at Madrid. He was then appointed minister of finance in Spain. In 1788, King Charles III. died; new interests succeeded; Count *Florida Blanca* became minister; and *Cabarrus* was disgraced, impeached, arrested, and imprisoned for nearly eighteen months, while the bank-shares vanished into nothing. At length, a hearing was obtained, the charges against *Cabarrus* were declared frivolous, indemnities were granted to him, and the title of Count was in atonement conferred on him. On the part of the Spanish court, he attended the congress of Rastadt in 1797; and he would have been deputed to France, if the French court would have received a native subject as the agent of a foreign prince. When the Prince of the Peace acquired ascendancy at Madrid, he wished to keep *Cabarrus* at a distance, and offered him an embassy in Holland: but this scheme did not take place, and after the

18th March, 1808, *Cabarrus* was again minister of finance. He undertook a journey to Seville in April 1810, and died there of a sudden attack of gout. His published works are 1. *Le Diseur de Rien*, a sort of *Tatler*, which the Spanish government suppressed, but which was the original cause of his being remarked at Madrid. 2. *Lettres de F. Cabarrus, écrites de sa Prison au Prince de la Paix.* 3. *Système de Contributions le plus convenable à l'Espagne.* 4. *Eloge de Charles III. Roi d'Espagne.* 5. *Eloge de Dn. Musquez, Ministre des Finances.*'

'The seventh volume will furnish a notice of one of those men of letters who have adorned Malta: they are become as it were our countrymen, and ought to excite a national solicitude for their illustration.

'CAVALLINI, *Philip*, practised medicine at Malta about the close of the seventeenth century. He published in 1689, under the title *Pugillus Melitæus*, the first Flora of this interesting island. He mentions in it many curious plants, and among others the *Fucus helminthocortan*, or Corsican coralline, which was already known to him as an useful medicine in diseases caused by worms. *Bruckman* reprinted this scarce work in his *Epistolæ Itinerariæ*.'

In the eighth volume we may select an oriental life by M. LANGLÈS.

'CHYR-SHAH. This usurper, of Afghan origin, was called Feryd while he inhabited Roh, a mountain situated between Persia and India. The tribe in which he originated was termed Sous, and passed for one of the noblest clans of the Afghans. Feryd, who was not liked by his father, quitted early his native country, and went into India; where he led an adventurous life, distinguishing himself in the service of several princes by his courage, his intelligence, and his ambition. Hunting with the sovereign of Behar, he attacked alone an enormous tiger, and cut off its head with a stroke of his sabre; the prince immediately bestowed on him the name of Chyr-khan, or Lion-heart. This sovereign died shortly afterward; and Chyr-khan, without regard to the duties of hospitality and gratitude, seized on the throne, expelled the young heir, and thus obtained the means of attempting greater things. From Behar he entered Bengal, and defeated and killed the governor. The great Mogul Humayoon, the son and successor of Baboor, now determined to oppose this conqueror, and assembled, in order to crush him, an army 100,000 strong: but Chyr-khan, with a force not exceeding 50,000 effective men, attacked the imperial army near the Ganges, on the 10 Moharrem, 947 of the Hedjira, (10th May, 1540,) defeated the Indian monarch completely, and obliged him to fly towards Agra. Harassed still by the conqueror, and betrayed by his kinsmen and ministers, Humayoon was at length compelled to take refuge at the court of Persia; and Chyr-khan assumed the title of shah, or king, coined money in his own name, and inserted

in

in the khotbath, or Mohammedan prayer, the appellation of Chyr-shah. His reign lasted but five years, when he was killed by an explosion of gun-powder from the mine of a citadel which he was besieging, 24th August, 1545. He left many monuments of his magnificence; caravanseray, wells, mosques, and alleys of trees planted along the roads, &c. His tomb, situated at Sasseram, near Djyompoor, is one of the noblest architectural monuments of India.'

From the ninth volume, we take the life of a German theologian:

'CORRODI, *Henry*, was born at Zurich in 1752, and died there in 1793. The weakness of his constitution, his disagreeable exterior, and the secluded education which he received from an austere and vigilant father, were adapted to subdue common talents: but *Corrodi*, encouraged by the friendship of *Gesner*, struggled against these obstacles, and became at Leipzig and Halle the pupil of *Platner* and *Semler*. His vast knowlege and philosophic spirit formed a singular contrast with his personal insignificance and timidity of manner. After his return to Zurich in 1786, he obtained a professorial chair in the gymnasium of that city, but did not assume the ecclesiastical profession, which had been intended for him by his parents, on account of conscientious doubts. Still he chose to display his acquirements in theological literature. In 1781 appeared his *Critical History of Millenarianism*; next, a *History of the Jewish Canon*; and then a collection of *Philosophic Investigations*, dated 1786. In 1781, he undertook the superintendance of a magazine for Scripture-criticism, which examined boldly the history of religion and of fanaticism: but the great work, which he had announced, and of which fragments were progressively inserted in that journal, he did not live to finish. His probity and beneficence endeared him to all his acquaintance.'

The life of Cicero, which occurs in this volume, deserves notice, not so much for the biography as for the critical and bibliographical remarks on the different editions of this most influential of writers.

Volume X. concludes with the life of the poet *Delille*, but it is too long for our pages. Lives connected with the French revolution are related with a noble frankness, but much in the spirit which actuated the subjects of them while in existence; as if to royalists had been assigned the writing of royalist-lives, and to friends of liberty the memoirs of liberalists.

These volumes contain so vast a mass of wholly new materials, and afford so considerable an accession of biographical information concerning all nations, that the work must become an essential book of reference in the libraries of public institutions. It is the most comprehensive, the most cosmopolite, *biographicon* that is extant.

ART. VII. *Mémoire sur la Marine, &c. i. e.*; A Memoir respecting the Navy, the Bridges, and the Roads of France and England. By CHARLES DUPIN, Captain of Naval Engineers, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 479. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 11s.

It is, we believe, generally known that M. DUPIN has been for some years engaged in writing a very extensive work on naval architecture, and its state of progressive improvement during the 18th and 19th centuries; under which term are proposed to be included, not simply that department of the science which relates to the construction of vessels, but all other subjects in any way connected with it, as the formation of docks, sluices, jetties, navigable canals, roads, bridges, &c. &c. With the view of giving all possible completeness to a treatise embracing so many important objects, he obtained, through the intercession of the French ambassador in London, permission to visit our several dock-yards; and to inform himself on the spot respecting the processes adopted in our naval constructions, the state of our works, the nature of the various machinery employed, and every other object that was calculated to forward his views with reference to the important design which he had conceived. In his capacity of Captain in the engineer-department of the French navy, he had already visited and been actively employed in various ports of Italy, France, and Holland; and, by an union of great scientific knowlege with much practical skill, he was doubtless eminently qualified for the task which he had assigned to himself, and which very few other men would have been able to perform.

The volume before us, however, must be considered only as the precursor of the great work to which we have alluded; being nothing more than a very brief abstract of its contents, principally as they have been at different times presented by the author to the French Institute, of which he is a corresponding member. We have here, therefore, a very miscellaneous composition; containing a sketch of M. DUPIN's first and second journies in Great Britain, with descriptions of the Break-water constructing at Plymouth, and of the Caledonian canal: a sketch relative to the museum in the arsenal of Toulon: a paper on the re-establishment of the French *Académie de Marine*; on various machines employed in the dock-yard at Rochefort; abstracts from the author's memoirs on the flexibility of wood; on the stability of vessels, &c. &c.

Scarcely any object can be conceived, that is more calculated to excite the interest of men of science than such an under-

undertaking as that which is here projected; which promises a complete developement of the state of the mechanic arts, and of the great public works of England and France, those two nations which of all others have doubtless carried them to the highest degree of perfection: — but, to examine these with due discrimination, to estimate their merits and defects with candour and judgment, and to give an opinion unbiassed by national feelings, all this requires not only a well informed but a peculiarly constituted mind. Perhaps no man can so far become a citizen of the world, as to be able to divest himself of all national attachments; nor, if this were possible, should we envy him the stoical indifference which it would be calculated to produce. Nature has laid down the course of our affection;

"Friend, parent, neighbour, first it will embrace,
His country next, and next all human race."*

Since, therefore, we cannot but consider any violation of this principle as an interruption of the law of nature, we should rather be inclined to pity than to envy the human being who should be so unfortunate as to be divested of this powerful natural feeling. We shall not, consequently, quarrel with M. DUPIN for the high encomiums which he bestows on the talents and genius of his countrymen: — we are even ready to acknowlege that he appears, in most cases, to have endeavoured to do ample justice to Englishmen and English works: — but in others, we must observe, he seems to have been acting under the feeling to which we have above alluded, and thus to have been betrayed into assertions and expressions not strictly consistent with his declarations of candour and impartiality. In the dedication of his book to M. *Prony*, he says, obviously alluding to the English;

'That people, even, whose national egotism leads them to wish to possess exclusively every means of happiness, and all kinds of renown, are obliged to acknowlege that the invention and perfection of the most sublime theories constitute at this time one of the most noble titles which honour the genius of France. But, leaving us with regret this incontestible glory, they appropriate to themselves all its benefits, by carrying into their own country the consequences of our fertile discoveries. The useful arts, elementary and productive knowlege, and all the vehicles of public fortune, acting in concert in their favour, are advancing with giant-steps among our happy rivals: while, with us, inventions ever new appear to be doomed to a perpetual infancy, checked by the obstacles of institutions, of men, and of things.'

Let us, before we enter on an analysis of M. DUPIN's performance, briefly examine the justice of the above remarks;

and first we would inquire whether the disposition to enjoy, undiminished by participation, all kinds of renown, is not a trait rather of the French than of the English character. Without reviving old disputed claims relative to the invention of fluxions, and similar controversies now nearly forgotten, we will take a few cases relative to the invention of certain machines, and other subjects, more intimately connected with the nature of the work before us.

In the first place, the French claim the honour of the invention of Bramah's or the *Hydrostatic Press*; not because they were the first who constructed one of these machines, but because, about two hundred years before such a machine was made, *Pascal* had suggested the theoretical principle of its operation.

Secondly, they maintain that the *Hydraulic Ram* is also a French invention, because it was first given in its present form by *Montgolfier*: although Whitehurst, 50 years before, not merely like *Pascal* suggested the possibility of making such an engine, but had actually erected one at Oulton in Cheshire, and described it at length in the Philosophical Transactions for 1775. Now all for which we contend is that, if the Press be French in consequence of *Pascal*'s suggestion, it must follow *à fortiori* that the Ram is English by Whitehurst's construction.

Again, the same principle which makes the Hydrostatic Press French will make Balloons English; for Dr. Black had advanced suggestions, and Cavallo had performed experiments, with reference to this subject, some time before the first balloon ascended from Avignon; yet we question much whether the French would willingly abandon their claim to so noble a discovery.

We will not pursue this subject farther than to observe that, of all the pretensions of the French to the honour of being inventors, that which leads them to trace the origin of the steam-engine to *Papin's Digester* is perhaps the most groundless and absurd. Yet we should be at no loss to find numerous other instances, demonstrative of our position that the desire of monopolizing all kinds of renown is rather a French than an English failing. Indeed, M. Dupin himself furnishes us with a case of this kind in the preceding extract, which must strike the most superficial observer: we allude to the passage in which this author asserts that, after having yielded to the French with regret the honour of inventing and perfecting many important theories, we have availed ourselves of them, and made them the foundation of our national power and glory. If M. Dupin had here reflected

for one moment, he must have been convinced that those great works which he has examined, which have excited so much of his admiration, and which have added so largely to the power and opulence of this country, would have been constructed and have existed in their present form, if no one of the sublime theories to which he alludes had ever been promulgated. In what way has the Caledonian Canal, or the Plymouth Break-water, or the East and West India and London Docks, or any other of those important constructions, the least connection with or dependence on the refined mathematical theories of the French Institute? We are willing at least to look for a different origin, and to maintain that we owe them not to French theories, but to English talent, industry, and perseverance; or, if we are in any manner indebted for them to France, it is to the ambition of her late ruler, which roused into action all our latent powers, and has enabled us to demonstrate to France and to the world what England and Englishmen are capable of performing. We think that an author, who can attempt to trace the origin of such works to the theories of the members of the French Academy, should have been a little sparing of his censure in asserting that England wishes to be the monopolizer of every kind of renown.

After all, however, though we have deemed it right to combat M. DUPIN's accusation, we have promised not to quarrel with him for his nationality. If we can only persuade him that he is not divested of it, this is all that we have in view, and that we wish to effect; except, indeed, that our remarks may serve to apprize our readers that we have not to examine the work of a blind admirer of the British character, or of British talents, however candid he may be in his report of things as they actually exist.

Let us now accompany the author in his first excursion to Great Britain. The account commences with a slight description of the port of London, and of the numerous ships which line each side of the river from London-bridge to an immense distance, ranged five, six, and even seven or eight deep; and yet, he observes, these form but a portion of the mercantile navy of this emporium of commerce. All vessels trading to the East and West Indies have their respective docks; and those which trade to America have theirs: while the London-docks receive indiscriminately the ships of all nations. When speaking of the Greenland-dock, M. DUPIN observes:

'Not twenty years have elapsed since this, which is now the least considerable of all the docks specified above, was the only one

one that existed. The war commenced, and we covered the continent with our trophies; Europe became impoverished; and the commerce of England seemed to fall before our victorious banners. We already believed Great Britain to be exhausted, and on the brink of ruin: but, while our view was obscured by the noble incense of our glory, an unexpected opulence inundated the treasury of the British empire; the Thames became too limited to contain its numerous ships; and fewer years were sufficient to enable certain private individuals to construct, at their own expence, docks for the reception of all the merchant-ships of the two hemispheres, than the triumphant government required to build some of the quays of the Seine. Such are the prodigies of the sea!'

Leaving this subject, the author passes on to a description of all those objects which struck him as more particularly deserving of remark in a scientific point of view; or which differed essentially in their construction from those of France. He notices particularly the form which we give to the revetments of our docks, our flood-gates, and sluices: the floating machines for excavating the banks formed in the river; our iron rail-ways; (to which latter invention England is said to owe a part of its riches;) the extensive application of the steam-engine in all kinds of machinery, &c. &c. The diving-bell he describes at considerable length, and speaks of it as a very interesting machine almost or wholly unknown to French engineers. All these subjects, however, are treated too superficially in the volume before us to convey to a French reader an adequate idea of the nature either of their construction or their application: but, in the promised great work, plates will be given in aid of the written description, and the advantages and disadvantages of the several plans will be examined on correct mechanical principles.

M. Dupin's next series of observations apply to the great change that we have effected in the materials employed in the construction of our private and public works; our dock-yard slips, which had formerly only revetments of wood, are now composed of stone, marble, or granite; and many of our buildings are made of iron, in which wood was formerly the principal material. He mentions in particular, as one of the finest examples of this kind, the roof built under the direction of Mr. Rennie along the great West India Dock, eight hundred metres or about 2500 feet in length. After a slight notice of the workshops of Mr. Maudslay, the rope-manufactory of Mr. Huddart, the iron-cable manufactory of Captain Browne, and those of M. Brunel for the construction of circular saws, he

he passes on to a description of the Dock-yard and Victualling-office at Deptford, the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, and the Arsenal and Dock-yard at Woolwich. The two latter places furnish many machines and constructions of great interest, and the description of them will in course occupy a considerable portion of the publication which the author has in view. In the present volume, they are but barely enumerated: he indeed particularizes only the new smithery, constructing under the direction of Mr. Rennie; the bending machine of Mr. Hookey; with the experiments on the impregnation of wood, and the unfortunate explosion which attended them. In the arsenal, M. DUPIN specifies the circular and long saws of Brunel, the planing machine, and the hydrostatic presses, of which he promises a particular description in his volume relative to the English Artillery; where also are to be given minute details of the Ballastic pendulum for ascertaining the velocity of balls,—an investigation relative to the merits of Congreve's new guns, as compared with those constructed on the principle of Sir Thomas Bloomfield, — a synopsis of the studies of the Royal Military Academy, — and various other matters interesting to men of science generally, and to military engineers in particular.

Passing down the Thames, we were rather surprized to find no notice of the important powder-magazines of Purfleet, which we should have imagined to be proper objects for the author's examination: but he seems to have missed them in his route, and to have proceeded immediately from Woolwich to Sheerness and Chatham; two highly important stations in the naval department of this country. These places furnish various subjects for observation, of which the celebrated well, sunken under the direction of Mr. Whidby at the former place, is not the least considerable. The author describes also at some length the nature of our prison-ships for convicts at that port, and passes many handsome compliments on the humanity which dictated the arrangement of the several parts; pointing out the comforts which they are calculated to bestow on these, the lowest and most degraded of our countrymen. This praise, however, he accompanies with some severe censures on the treatment of our prisoners of war: asserting that we stowed in hulks, similar to those of our convict-ships, twice or thrice the number of prisoners of all nations that was fixed as the maximum for the convicts; and that the former had not more than one-tenth of the air that the British parliament had enacted to be requisite for the children of our great manufactories. We have unfortunately no direct information which will enable us to contradict the

the author's statement, although we cannot but think that it is exaggerated: we had no prisoners of war when M. Dupin visited this place; and we strongly suspect the correctness of the information that he had obtained on this subject. He observes:

'In shewing the immense difference which is made in the ports of England between a felon and a disarmed enemy, I ought to say that I have no idea of becoming either a vain declaimer or a calumniator of a foreign power, too long our rival and now our equivocal friend. I have never feared and never will fear to displease the high national prejudices of France, in rendering to the English government and people my sincere homage for their actions and their institutions that are founded on humanity: but I fear still less to offend British pride, by proclaiming loudly those truths which ought to wound it; and perhaps, in the eyes of impartial judges, the sincerity of my praises will lead them to give credence to this the only severe remark, which the love of mankind and the honour of civilization have obliged me to make.'

We have just said that we have no direct information which will enable us to contradict this statement of the writer: but one thing we can assert, that the number of the prisoners thus confined was a very inconsiderable portion of the great mass; that our inland-prisons were built in airy situations; and that in them the comforts of their unfortunate inmates were as anxiously studied as those of our own prisoners, or the children in our great manufactories.

Chatham likewise supplies the author with various subjects; which, however, are only introduced in the volume before us, though detailed at length in the manuscript-copy of the *Tableau d'Architecture*. Chatham-dock being that in which Mr. Seppings first put in practice his new method of diagonal framing for ships of war, M. Dupin adverts again to this subject, and loudly complains of the prejudices which he has to encounter in introducing this principle into the French dock-yards; as he does also of the tendency assigned to the memoir which he presented to the Royal Society, by Mr. Seppings and his friends. We have already noticed this communication in M. R. vol. lxxxiv., and we are still of the opinion there expressed, that something very much resembling Mr. Seppings's principle had been practised by French ship-builders many years back: but that it could not be identical, because the ships into which it was introduced were weakened instead of being strengthened by its application. At the same time, we cannot conceive why M. Dupin should be classed, as he says he is, among the detractors of Mr. Seppings. In fact, he speaks very highly of the excellence of this gentleman's method, and his anxiety to introduce it into the French

French service is a proof of his sincerity. With respect to his claims respecting the origin of the construction, they certainly ought to be met by a statement of facts, and not by calumny.

Portsmouth was the next object that solicited the author's attention, and he very warmly commends the state of the works in this place. The reservoirs for receiving the water from the wet docks, the block-machinery, the naval college, the school for the education of naval architects, the victualling office, the ordnance-arsenal, the marine hospitals, and various other interesting buildings and establishments, will form the subject of a separate chapter in the promised *Tableau:* but, in the present memoir, they are passed over rather too rapidly to convey to the reader a very distinct idea of their magnitude and importance. The same remark may be applied to the author's account of Plymouth dock-yard, and that at Milford Haven: but the Break-water at the former place is allowed greater length, forming an entire section of the volume. In concluding his description of the English dock-yards and arsenals, M. DUPIN remarks:

'Such are the establishments of the naval service of Great Britain. In visiting them, I have been constantly struck with the order that reigns in the works, and the silent activity of every individual employed. Every where we see the signs and effects of economy, *but of a rational economy which knows the necessity of sacrificing, I might almost say with prodigality, in order to reap afterward with usury the fruits of the first expences.* The perfection which I here describe is not the result of a great number of years; it dates its commencement only from the last war. It is in the midst of dangers and of warlike activity, that great minds have vanquished every obstacle, triumphed over prejudices, and given birth to a new order of things, which we should have imagined to have been attainable only through long and peaceful meditations.'

A short account of some of the most important of our mercantile ports and private dock-yards concludes the first chapter of the *Mémoires sur la Marine.*

Chapter II. opens with the author's account of his second series of travels in England; in the course of which he had an opportunity of witnessing an operation which he had before anxiously but vainly wished to see, viz. the launching of one of our men of war, which took place at Deptford-yard. — He now pursued a different route; passing through Cambridge to Hull, from Hull to Sunderland and Newcastle, and thence to Edinburgh; which he calls the 'Athens of the North,' observing that 'the Scots people unite to the urbanity of the Greeks the hospitality of the Arabs.'

'It

'It is a phænomenon extremely remarkable, and deserving the attention of philosophers, to see at the extremity of a great empire, and nearly under the frigid zone, a town, no longer a capital, and abandoned to itself, raised by the genius of its inhabitants to a great eminence; holding the sceptre of history and of political economy; and producing talents of the first order in mineralogy, chemistry, the medical and surgical sciences.'

Having examined with attention the various objects of scientific interest at Leith and Edinburgh, M. DUPIN proceeded to Dundee and Arbroath; and, after a delay of two days at a farm, in consequence of the tempestuous state of the weather, he was at length enabled to get ashore on the Bell-rock; where he appears to have examined with the most scrupulous attention the structure of the light-house, the mechanism of the lamps, and the disposition of the glasses which produce the alternations of colours. The keepers of this solitary building have a journal, in which they request all their visitors to inscribe their names, and their ideas respecting the structure of the edifice: but the author says that he found nothing remarkable in this register, except a short impromptu of Walter Scott, which he transcribes, and renders into French verse. His muse is also invoked in aid of his description of the Caledonian Canal. From his last station, he now continued his route to Montrose, Stone-Haven, and Aberdeen; the observatory of which, he says, is rich in instruments, but, he fears, poor in observations. From Aberdeen, he proceeded to the Highlands, and visited in his way the celebrated canal above mentioned; his description of which forms the subject of a separate section. From Fort William he passed to Glasgow; and on the industry, perseverance, and morals of its inhabitants he bestows the highest encomiums. Speaking of the canal which joins the Clyde with the Frith of Forth, he exclaims: 'I wish that the example of the Clyde and of Glasgow would conduce to the same efforts, and be made to obtain the same results, for the Seine and for Paris.'

'Before I left the environs of Glasgow, I had it above all things at heart to visit the famous foundery of Carron. I wished at least to attempt to see it, for I knew that the proprietors admitted very few Englishmen, and no foreigners. Prince Nicholas of Russia, notwithstanding all the royal recommendation with which his Highness was provided, could not obtain admission. As to me, I was modestly but warmly recommended as an amateur, as a *dilettante di belle cose*, and had first to submit to the following interrogations: — "Are you a merchant, a workman, or a manufacturer?" — "No, nor engaged in any undertaking." — "For what

what purpose do you travel?" — "As a friend of the arts and sciences, and for my instruction." — "Let the gentleman enter."

M. Dupin was now admitted into this important establishment, and was no doubt amply recompensed, by studying the machinery and its various constructions, for the little dialogue which he had to maintain with the director. He ought to have stated that no objection was made to the admission of Prince Nicholas, but to that of certain of his followers, and that he refused to enter without them.

When he had inspected various places in Scotland, the author retraced some of his steps, and we meet him on English ground again at Liverpool; a place which he had visited in his first journey, but which now excited in his mind a greater interest than before.

'After an absence of no more than a year, I find a thousand new objects: immense docks, but half formed twelve months ago, now finished, full of water and of ships; other docks constructing; quays and edifices raised as if by enchantment; commerce, which then languished, flourishing anew; — such have I found Liverpool on my second visit to it.'

From Liverpool, he went to Chester, and thence to Wales, in order to view the aqueducts of the canal of Ellesmere; particularly that of Ponte-Cysilte, which is raised 130 feet above the valley of Llangollen. His description of his arrival in this vale is interesting; and we therefore transcribe it:

'At the end of a long and troublesome journey, I entered this valley on a fine autumnal evening, just as the sun was setting; and never did a spectacle more impressive meet my eye. In the midst of a vigorous vegetation, still preserving all its freshness, the fires of forges, of lime-kilns, and of coals reduced to coak, raised to the heavens their vortices of flame and smoke: while villages, workshops, and mansions, formed an amphitheatre on the sides of the valley. In the bottom, a rapid torrent; — above, the aqueduct, presenting its road of iron, suspended as by enchantment in the air on slight columns; — and this magnificent work the fruit of the fortunate boldness of one of my friends, (Mr. Telford). Lost in the contemplation of these beauties of art and of nature, which in the gradual decrease of a fading light varied the aspect every instant, I remained in extacy, till the departure of the twilight left me to find an asylum, still some miles distant. — Such was the picture here presented to my view, and which I cannot describe without weakening the charms of the real scenery: my bosom even yet beats when I remember the emotions produced in my mind by this admirable landscape.'

When he had obtained all the requisite particulars relative to the dimensions and construction of this master-piece of the mechanic

mechanic arts, the author crossed into the Isle of Anglesea, and thence to Ireland: but we cannot allow ourselves, however pleasant the excursion would be, to pass the Channel with him. Indeed, we have accompanied him already so far, that we must now endeavour to compensate for our delays by a very rapid sketch of the remaining part of the volume: but we must previously furnish our readers with the concluding remarks of the author on presenting this second memoir to the members of the French Academy, which display great talents, impartiality, and self-command; qualities eminently requisite for the execution of the task which M. DUPIN had undertaken to perform.

'In speaking of the important establishments which I have visited, and eulogizing them in a strain which I have endeavoured as little to repress as to magnify, those persons will be wrong who conceive that I have abandoned myself to a blind enthusiasm. I had determined before-hand neither to exalt nor to depreciate; and I have endeavoured to divest myself of the influence of all systems, and to see in every thing only the simple truth. I have, it is true, presented to you nothing but objects worthy of praise and of admiration; which is, I apprehend, consistent with the view of a scientific excursion. If I had wished to form only a collection of defects and ridiculous constructions, there would have been no necessity for my crossing the water at so great an expence, and with so much fatigue. I should have found all these on the Continent, and I have found them in abundance across the sea: but they are noticed only when I conceive them to be opposed to the public good, or to the cause of humanity. I must acknowlege that I should have blushed to have undertaken my journey with the view of collecting, in the spirit of littleness and malignity, only those things that might be made the subject of ridicule.

'I have treated men as I have treated things. I went not to find out blockheads and fools, in order to stigmatize their character. More than once I have indeed been denied and repulsed: but I have not even in these cases allowed myself to conclude that those who opposed me were wrong, and that I was right; I have merely thought that, if my motive had been better understood, I should have been better received. Every man is at liberty to communicate or to guard for himself the treasures of his talents; and the traveller who demands these riches, by menacing their possessor with the poignard of satire or the lash of ridicule, appears to me little better than the highway-man who demands our money or our life.

'I love much more to dwell on noble actions and on the gratitude that they inspire. In a thousand places, I have found kindness and hospitality; and in nearly every instance great liberality of communication, particularly among the engineers both military and civil. Every where, men of science and artists have honoured me with their courtesy, and some with their friendship. In general, (except in London, and even there only among a few persons,)

persons,) I have not found that haughty indifference which repulses every one who is not already celebrated, and who cannot therefore serve the receiving egotist as a lever to renown.'

In the preceding analysis, we have selected only those parts of the memoir that we considered to be most interesting to an English reader; and even of these we have been obliged to pass over many which, if our limits would have admitted, might have formed the subject of much eulogium: particularly the author's two chapters on the Plymouth Break-water and the Caledonian Canal. We should have been glad, also, if we could have given at some length his account of the machines employed in Rochefort Harbour and Dock-yard; although the want of plates necessarily tends to render the written description somewhat defective. — Other sections, as we have already stated, relate to projected alterations and new establishments in the port of Toulon: with descriptions of certain works of art, apparently too little regarded by those who preside over the naval management of that harbour. Another article is occupied by the author's remarks concerning the re-establishment of the French Academy of Marine; a subject which seems to have engaged M. Dupin's most serious and anxious attention. Lastly, we have the reports of the class of the Institute on the author's experiments relative to the Flexibility of Wood, and on his Investigations respecting the Stability of Floating Bodies, particularly with reference to Ships and Vessels of all descriptions.

We are not exactly informed of the magnitude of the great work to which the author so frequently alludes, and which he has already presented in manuscript, with drawings, to the French Academy: but we must suppose that it will be very considerable; and that it will be highly interesting we cannot, from the specimen afforded by the volume before us, entertain the slightest doubt. We shall therefore look anxiously for its publication.

ART. VIII. *Histoire et Mémoires de l'Institut Royal de France, &c.; i. e.* The History and Memoirs of the Royal Institute of France, Class of History and Antient Literature.

[*Article continued from our last Volume, p.* 511.]

WE resume our account of the transactions of the Class of History, &c. of the French Institute, from our last Appendix, recommencing our report with the Memoirs in the second volume.

Memoir on the Grecian Origin of the Founder of Argos. By M. LOUIS PETIT-RADEL. — The greater portion of this es-

say, which aims at confirming the honour of the foundation of Argos to indigenous Greeks, and not to Egyptian or Phœnician colonists, may be considered as a sort of review of the opinions held on this subject by M. *Fréret*, a member of the late *Académie des Inscriptions*, and author of many treatises on subjects analogous to the present. The Abbé *Barthélémy*, having propounded similar doctrines relative to the introduction of the arts into Greece from Egypt, in his *Anacharsis*, becomes also the subject of the remarks of M. PETIT-RADEL, who differs from him and M. *Fréret*; and from the crowd who have drawn their historical knowlege from elementary works founded on the opinions of those writers, on this and several other points of classical antiquity. M. P.-R. believes in the existence of some antient indigenous dynasties in Greece, previously to the importation of any arts from Egypt or Phœnicia; and he founds this faith on the character of numerous ruins of the highest antiquity, still discernible, and totally differing from the regular system of co-temporary Egyptian architecture. He has also some antient historical writers in his favour, more especially Dionysius Halicarnassensis; the credibility of whose narrative in its earlier parts has been rather unfairly depreciated. As the leading point of difference between M. *Fréret* and M. PETIT-RADEL may be concisely stated, we shall endeavour to explain it.

The former thinks that the foundation of Argos by Phoroneus is to be attributed to an Egyptian colony led by Inachus, and that these colonists civilized a country which they found in an absolutely savage state. The latter argues that it was founded by indigenous Greeks, one hundred and fifty years before the arrival of Danaus, whom he esteems to have been the first Egyptian colonist. It is useless to criticize the terms, *indigenous*, and *αὐλοχθονες*: there is of course a necessary limitation in the acceptation of them; and the use of them must be defended by the want of a substitute. — With this view of the subject, the present author assigns to the indigenous dynasty of the Inachidæ the origin of those walls in the Larissa of Argos, and in the *ακροπολεις*, or citadels as we may term them, (the original cities,) which are now to be traced; and he calls the architecture of them *Cyclopian*, in conformity with some passages in Euripides, Strabo, and Pausanias, who describe a people so named as the earliest builders. This architecture he distinguishes from the sort that is observable in the *lower* cities that in the course of time grew round the eminences on which, with a view to defence, the original *acropolis* was always placed; allowing that the latter may be attributed

attributed to the source which *Fréret* and *Barthélémy* claim for both collectively.

M. *Fréret* brings Inachus, Cecrops, and Danaus from Egypt, and Cadmus from Phœnicia: the dispute lies with the first of these. In corroboration of his system, he has recourse to etymology. Inachus, he says, is not a name, but a title of prince, as Enach, in the plural Enachim, and thence the Greek Ἄναξ. M. Petit-Radel, however, successfully exposes the weakness of such a deduction, and the assumption of it certainly rather injures than assists the cause. *Fréret* assigns the expedition of Inachus from Egypt to the commencement of the period at which the shepherd-kings (*Hycsos*) began, according to Manetho, to reign in Lower Egypt. M. P.-R. shews the uncertainty of this epoch; and unless, indeed, the age of Sesostris could be accurately determined, by whom these *Hycsos* were expelled, we do not see to what purpose the passage of Manetho, which is after all but a fragment, can be applied. Inachus is generally supposed, we believe, to have been nearly co-temporary with Abraham; that is, about A. M. 2148, ante J. C. 1856; and, unless a navigation of the extent from the mouths of the Nile to the Gulf of Argos was supported by a generally concurrent tradition preserved among the antient historians, it certainly seems scarcely credible with reference to the age at which it is asserted to have taken place. No such testimony as this, that we know, can be produced: the idea, indeed, seems to have been first generated by the imagination, and subsequently supported by deductions savouring more of ingenuity than truth. — It is curious to observe that *Fréret* totally disbelieves the story recorded in Dionysius of Halicarnassus, and cited by him from Myrtillus of Lesbos, a lost author, respecting the colony led by Œnotrus to Italy, one hundred and thirty years after the presumed navigation of Inachus; and he characterizes the relater as an historical romancer: — but whether does it savour more of romance to defend a navigation of one hundred and twenty leagues than one of ten, — the former, also, preceding the latter by nearly a century and a half? M. *Fréret* cannot allege that the Egyptians were superior to the Greeks in the arts of navigation; for, if these supposed colonists civilized Greece almost by magic in the common arts of life, (so rapidly was it done, if we believe *Fréret* and *Barthélémy*, who certainly write romancingly on this head,) it is a wonder indeed if they did not teach them how to build a few ships in one hundred and twenty years, especially when they must have had so many models drawn up on the shore of Argos. The relation of Dionysius is, however, supported by Pausanias and Aristotle;

while the navigation of Inachus has no *direct* authority. Much more might be said on these points: — the ages to which they refer may be undoubtedly esteemed nearly fabulous: — but, if it be the object of the historian to elicit some grains of truth from the mass of fiction, he must judge by the rules of general credibility; and these, we conceive, incline against the French academician, in favour of the member of the Institute, whose memoir consequently would suggest many useful cautions to any labourer in the encumbered soil of early traditions. — The second division of it contains the reasons which induce him to believe Inachus to have been an aboriginal Greek, after having refuted the position that he was an Egyptian. The heads are briefly as follow.

Pausanias, who is very particular in his narration of colonies from the east, and who dwells minutely on the expeditions of Danaus and Cadmus, preserves an absolute silence respecting the supposed navigation of Inachus. Few writers are more conspicuous for their spirit of research and sagacity in discovering truth, in the service of which he occasionally requires the aid of etymology: but he finds nothing in the name of Inachus on which he might presume an Egyptian origin, or in that of Argos, or, in short, in any synonyms of the names of places of that date. He even contrasts the architecture of the walls of Tirinthus with the Pyramids, as specimens of different styles; which he would scarcely have done if he had attributed them to the same people as their founders. The Parian Chronicle, although it clearly mentions Danaus, Cecrops, and Cadmus, has nothing on the subject of the navigation of Inachus. Pliny declares Danaus to have been the first colonizer from Egypt, and quotes some earlier author, who asserts that Danaus built the first ship, called a *penteconteris*. Ptolemy, as cited by Clemens Alexandrinus, says that Inachus, the *Argive*, was co-temporary with Amosis king of Egypt; and he would surely not have given him the appellation which he assigns to him, had he considered him as an emigrant from Egypt. Certainly, these authors are comparatively moderns, when speaking of such very early times as those under consideration: but they were in possession of writings of more antient date; and it is no weak argument against any tradition, if we can ascertain it to have been unknown fifteen hundred years ago by persons whose habits, as well as the subjects on which they wrote, would have led them to the investigation of a report, if it existed in their own times.

M. Petit-Radel then considers these and some other instances of silence on this head in antient authors, although a *negative*

a *negative* proof in its nature, as equivalent, under the circumstances of the case, to a *positive* proof in favour of his hypothesis.

Memoir on the Oratorical Art of Corax. By M. GARNIER. — It will probably be recollected by some of our classical readers that Cicero * occasionally mentions a person of the name of Corax, as a rhetorical teacher of very early date. His name is unquestionably not introduced with any very great marks of respect, and he is coupled with another writer, called Tisias. The works of these two persons have been generally considered as lost to the moderns; and M. *Hardion*, in his dissertation "*Sur l'Origine et les Progrès de la Rhétorique*," † has collected such notices of them as he could discover: but it appears that this gentleman has not paid them more flattering compliments than Cicero himself; and he expresses no great regret at the loss which modern times have sustained by their disappearance.

If the majority of scholars assent to this opinion, they will probably not be much interested by the memoir of M. GARNIER; who now comes forwards to inform us that we are in actual possession of that treatise of Corax, to the loss of which M. *Hardion* has reconciled his mind with such commendable philosophy. The question, relating as it does to a treatise of little value, is certainly not a very important one: but, from the critical ingenuity with which it is pursued, it might amuse the leisure-hour of a literary man; and, to those who are fond of tracing the progress of science, it cannot be a matter of indifference to ascertain whether they are in possession of the infancy as well as the maturity of precepts on the art of rhetoric.

Our readers are aware that two treatises on this subject have descended to us, under the name of Aristotle: — the one divided into three books, bearing such indubitable marks of its parentage as to silence any new hypothesis respecting the person of its author: the other, comprized in one book, professing to be a work compiled for the use of Alexander the Great, and of such doubtful character that many of the most eminent critics have refused to accredit it as a composition of the Stagyrite. It is in this latter that M. GARNIER believes he has detected the very treatise of Corax under consideration: whether increased, or not, by additions from his

* Cicero in Br. 12.; also *De Oratore*. 1. c. 20.; likewise in Quinctilian, 3. c. 1.

† *Mémoires de l'Academie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres*. vol. xv.

pupil, Tisias, may be matter of reasonable doubt. Whatever may be the value of the question, it has not been lightly raised, nor treated in an uncritical manner. It has been related of Alexander, that, wishing to improve himself in the art of rhetoric, he required from one of the masters of that science (according to many statements, Anaximenes of Lampsacus,) a treatise on that subject; and that, in consequence, this rhetorician furnished him with a compilation of such principles as had been best delivered on that art, and also with the treatise of Corax. Hence it has appeared to some critics that the doubtful work of Aristotle is no other than the work prepared by Anaximenes. M. GARNIER, however, argues that not only is this improbable, but that it is equally unlikely that any such task should have ever been consigned to his hands from his master; who, having Aristotle himself constantly with him, would scarcely have importuned a third person for that which he could receive so much better from the fountain-head. These and some other reasons incline the present writer to decide that the treatise intitled *The Rhetoric*, addressed to Alexander, is not derived from Anaximenes. 2dly, it becomes necessary to prove that Aristotle himself did not compose it. Three reasons have been advanced against such a filiation by other critics: the first that it is not enumerated among his works by Diogenes Laertius: the second, the internal evidence to be derived from difference of style; and, thirdly, the annexation of a dedicatory introduction to it, which does not appear to have been the usual practice of the philosopher. None of these arguments satisfied the learned Fabricius: to the first he opposed the inaccuracy of Diogenes Laertius, of which he instanced some examples: to the second, the probable variations of style in the same author, when working with different materials; and to the third, the peculiar circumstances under which the treatise was said to have been composed, which might have rendered a dedicatory address necessary, although from a writer little accustomed to pen such a composition. These conflicting opinions of sundry high-sounding names on the one side, and Fabricius on the other, have rather confounded M. GARNIER; whose duty it is to annul the claims of Aristotle, before he can establish those of Corax.

In pursuance of this object, he attempts, and with considerable success, to separate the epistle dedicatory from the treatise to which it is appended; which he does by proving the completeness of the letter itself as a composition, and particularly instancing the conclusion, viz. with the word ἔῤῥωσο, a common valedictory form. He then proceeds to shew,

shew, by a comparison of the letter with this single treatise, that the one promises what the other in no way performs; and from the total omission of the monarchical form of government in the latter, while other polities are distinctly mentioned, he argues the improbability that it could have been intended as a didactic piece for the exclusive use of the prince. — Other deficiencies in the treatise are also exposed, which strongly confirm these reasonings.

M. GARNIER, then, thinks that this epistle announced generally the completion of Alexander's request; that it accompanied the great work of Aristotle on rhetoric, which was in fact the imposed task performed; and that with both of these were probably sent the composition intitled *The Rhetoric* to Theodectes by Aristotle, and also the treatise in question, misnamed *The Rhetoric* to Alexander, but in reality the original of Corax. That the former of these only corresponds with the alleged command of the monarch, and with the reply to that command in the epistle, little if any doubt can be felt. — It now remains for the author to confirm this substitution of Corax for the greater name to which the production has been attributed; which, if effectually done, must necessarily substantiate all arguments used in the former points of the controversy. The evidence is divided, in the manner usual in such literary questions, into internal and external: the former, however, not being derived from the general style and mode of diction observable in the treatise, but from the subject-matter and the method of managing it. In examining this portion of his testimony, M. GARNIER has done much to prove that the composition must have been written in the very infancy of the rhetorical art; and it will be recollected that Corax is supposed to have been the first who formed a treatise on the subject. The writer refers to no former masters, and is apparently ignorant of many of the accessory advantages to be drawn from sources distinctly discussed by Aristotle: in his precepts respecting γνῶμαι, he recommends no known authors whence they may be supplied and used as acknowleged truths; and he delivers his precepts in the imperative form, instead of that of general recommendation: thus evincing in this as in numerous other points an antiquity of date which would correspond with the presumed age of Corax; who, living a century previous to Aristotle, had no resources in those writers, whether poets or philosophers, the absence of all reference to whom is such an obvious cause of remark. It is curious, as a piece of verbal criticism, that the word ῥητορικη no where occurs in this treatise, and the verb ῥητορευειν once only; but that it

would have been used, if it passed current, can scarcely admit of a doubt.

The *internal* evidence goes to attest the age in which the work was composed; and the *external* to assign it more directly to the pen of Corax himself. He is said to have been a Syracusan, and minister to the Hiero who is so frequently the subject of Pindar's celebration; and it is remarked that, when he treats of the exordium of an oration, he usually proposes a form to his pupils as if they were to address people of Syracuse, or to speak with a reference to that state: as — "I rise to advise you to take arms in favour of the Syracusans," &c. In one of Plato's dialogues between Socrates and Phædrus, on the art of rhetoric, incidental mention occurs of two treatises, one of them by Corax or his pupil Tisias, of which Socrates speaks with much contempt; and it is remarkable that the defects, on which he founds his severe criticism, are the very same which an accurate examiner will discern in the Rhetoric to Alexander. This we conceive to be the strongest piece of evidence which has been adduced, and our limits will not allow us to pursue the matter farther. We dismiss the question, therefore, under a reliance that our readers will not couple us with the Sicilian rhetorician for having detained them so long with him; nor, in imitation of M. *Fréret*'s etymology, exclaim respecting us,

— — — λάβροι
Παγγλωσσία, ΚΟΡΑΚΕΣ ὡς
Ἀκραυλα γαρυεμεν.

Observations on some Writings by the Stoic Panætius. By the Same. — After having detailed all that is now known of the life of Panætius the Stoic, — who is presumed to have lived about two centuries before our æra, and to have taught at Rhodes, at Rome, (whither he had been drawn by Scipio Africanus,) and lastly at Athens, where he succeeded to the chair of the Portico on the death of Antipater of Tarsus, — the author proceeds to examine the testimony of the antients relative to those few of his writings of which the name and character have been preserved; the works themselves not being in existence. His ulterior object is to present more detailed and exact notions respecting them, regarding both the doctrines of the philosopher and his style of composition.

Memoir on different Greek Inscriptions. By M. D'Ansse de Villoison. — A considerable portion of learned trifling has been here expended on subjects of inferior importance; which is in no instance more exemplified than in a dissertation

ation of many pages on a small antique stone, bearing the inscription of ΑΔΩ ΕΓΩ ΠΑΝ, each of these three words forming a line. We are at a loss to conceive what illustration can be thrown on this legend by a string of passages from Latin poets, intended to prove that the god Pan played on a pipe. When, however, the readers of the memoir are sufficiently grounded in their belief of this fact, they are farther informed that the word ΠΑΝ is not put for ΠΑΝΑ, the accusative case, nor for the neuter accusative of the adjective πας; nor, again, is there an invocation to the god, but he speaks *in propriâ personâ*: "It is I, Pan, who sing." These words subsequently constitute a sort of text, from which the author enters into a discussion of the forms of the letters used by the antients in lapidary-writing at different periods. On the subject of antique gems and inscriptions, he seems much at home; and his dissertation may therefore be interesting to professed antiquaries, but to them only, and they are probably already well acquainted with M. DE VILLOISON's claims on their attention.

Memoir on the Monuments and Inscriptions of Kirmanschah, and of Bi-Sutoun; and on several other Monuments of the Sassanides. By M. SILVESTRE DE SACY. — Kirmanschah, or Kirmancha, is a small town at the distance of about seventy leagues from Bagdad; situated, as travellers inform us, in a pleasant valley, and surrounded by mountains distant nearly three miles from the town. At the foot of the highest of these, a stream issues which waters the small plain, near to which are found the remains that now for the second time have exercised the critical acumen of M. DE SACY. They consist of two chambers, hollowed out of the natural rock; the larger one being thirty feet square; and containing, besides some figures in very bold relief, a large colossal figure on horseback, generally supposed to represent some native prince or hero. In the smaller hall are two figures only, of the natural height, in demi-relief, and occupying the farther extremity. By the sides of these are engraved two inscriptions on the rock. M. *de Beauchamps*, who was there in 1787, conceived that no traveller before him had decyphered the letters; and he had some difficulty in accomplishing it, on account of the height and other inconveniences: but at length he succeeded in having them cleared out with a knife, for they were nearly an inch in length and very deep, and in taking a copy of them. M. DE SACY, soon after the publication of these inscriptions, read a memoir on them before the Academy in 1790, resting on M. *de Beauchamps*'s account for his data; but, since that period, more inform-

information has transpired respecting them; and he has obtained a delineation of the figures and letters, which has enabled him to form a more accurate judgment than he could previously have done. These new lights making him in some measure dissatisfied with his preceding accounts, he has now resumed the subject in this paper, read before the Institute. They have been derived from the travels of *Ambrose Bembo*, a Venetian, printed in a collection of Venetian travellers by the Abbé *Morelli*, librarian of St. Mark; and from the third volume of Travels in Turkey, Egypt, and Persia, by M. *Olivier*, a member of the National Institute. *Bembo* undertook his expedition soon after *Chardin*, and his accounts are the most important of the two. It is remarkable that *Olivier* has described these figures as designed for females; while *Bembo* not only tells us that they are men, but speaks of the representation of their beards, and in his engraved design leaves no doubt, from the general appearance of the figures and their accoutrements, that they were intended to represent the stronger sex. In this point he is uncontradicted by the Abbé *de Beauchamps*, who preceded him by a century, as also by M. *Otter*: but neither of these two travellers is precise in his language, speaking simply of two figures of the full size, without specifying the sex. Independently, however, of the engraved plate, the superior minuteness of research apparent in *Bembo*, compared with *Olivier*, would leave the reader little hesitation in adhering to the testimony of the former; on which M. DE SACY also rests his own hypothesis.

The inscriptions are in an oriental character, of no easy access. It is presumed to be Coptic * by *Bembo*, and is interpreted by M. DE SACY after a laborious comparison of it with many of the eastern dialects: but we have neither types to represent it at our command, nor associates sufficiently versed in the subject to whom we could consign it for interpretation, without application to quarters which the occasion is hardly important enough to justify. It must suffice for us, then, to say that the present author, having attempted to rectify the errors of the text by a comparison of that of *Bembo* with that of *Beauchamps*, decides that the figures represent the persons of Sapor II. and Sapor III. †, kings of

* They are, we believe, in what is termed the Pehlavi.

† The Persian empire, after a lapse of 475 years, was re-established on the ruins of the Parthian, about 230 years after Christ. Sapor II., about A.D. 308. Sapor III., 385. Artaxares II. reigned intermediately.

Persia,

Persia, of the race of the Sassanides. History places a monarch on the throne between these two princes: but that circumstance does not alter the conviction of M. DE SACY, founded on the written documents in which he finds their respective names. The French interpretation gives us little but the names and titles of these sovereigns, described with oriental hyperbole as "kings of kings, and celestial germs from the race of the gods."

The memoir before us also comprizes two other dissertations. The first relates to a Greek inscription very much mutilated, and placed over a carving in relief which apparently represents either a triumph or a sacrifice. It was discovered at no great distance from the preceding, and is noticed by *Bembo* and *Olivier*. The word ΓΩΤΑΡΖ, appearing very plainly, has induced some critics to refer it to Gotarzes, a king of Parthia, mention of whom occurs in Tacitus as having lived in the time of the Emperor Claudius, and who was consequently one of the Arsacidæ: but M. DE SACY is inclined to apply it to a satrap of the same name, and probably of a later date, and to a triumph rather than a sacrifice. — The next dissertation refers to some engraved stones of the Sassanides, on which the author hazards several conjectures. We will confine ourselves to one, which our readers may recollect as forming a vignette to Sir William Ouseley's Epitome of the Antient History of Persia. The stone is a sardonyx, bearing on it a figure in a long robe, with a globe or lotus-plant in front, and a cup in the hand. On the ground of it are the sun and the moon, with an inscription. Sir W. Ouseley reads this legend (in our characters) *Atoun Schahpourhi*, and interprets it, "The genius of the fire or altar of Sapor *;" resting his opinion on that of M. *Anquetil du Perron*, who had examined the subject; and, in conjunction with him, Sir W. regards the figure as that of a female, though expressing much diffidence in his own knowlege. M. DE SACY conceives, 1. that nothing in the figure justifies the idea that it represents a female; 2. that the globe which it bears on its head, where it has been found, on some other Persian medals, has been attached to a person, or one of two persons, tending the sacred fire at an altar; and that therefore the figure here represented is probably that of a priest of the altar; 3. that the word, which Sir W. Ouseley reads *atoun*, should be *atour* or *atro*; which change, it appears, would favour his own interpretation. The legend would then be rendered thus: — "*L'athorné Sapor*;" by which we

* *Le génie du feu de Schahpour, ou Sapor.*

understand

understand Sapor in the character of a priest performing sacred duties at the altar. These conjectures were afterward forwarded by their author to Sir W. Ouseley; who appears in a subsequent work to have assented to their general truth.

Memoir designed to prove that the Declamation in reply to a Letter from Philip is not the production of Demosthenes. By M. LARCHER. — This critic commences with expressing some surprize at his own temerity, but proceeds with consoling himself by a reference to previous cases: one of which he finds in Jeremy Markland's remarks on the epistles of Cicero to Brutus and of Brutus to Cicero, together with his dissertation on the four orations which he thought were falsely ascribed to Tully. M. LARCHER then enters the lists, and establishes a point which will not be disputed; viz. that some orations have been attributed to Demosthenes which he never pronounced, nor wrote. The next object is to add one more to the number of those that have been uniformly suspected. The author does not wish us to suppose that, when the well-known letter of Philip was publicly read in the assembly of the Athenians, Demosthenes, instead of exposing the specious arguments and well-glossed palliations of the Macedonian, remained quiet and unmoved, but that an oration, which burst from him extemporaneously, was afterward reduced to order by his pen, as indeed we learn from history. His hypothesis is that, this piece of oratory having perished, some officious personage has substituted in its place an article of inferior workmanship, which posterity has received as genuine without sufficient examination. The argument is perspicuously arranged under three heads. 1. The author asserts that the speech in question does not reply to the objections raised by Philip. 2. That the speaker quotes from himself, or repeats in the same terms sentiments which he uses elsewhere. 3. That a manifest difference exists in the style; and that words are employed which were not current when Demosthenes flourished. — It must be allowed that the first of these points is a fair objection to the speech itself; that is, to any alleged merit in it; since it presents much vague declamation on an occasion when close refutation seemed to be imperiously required. The second remark is established as just by a collection of nine passages that are to be found in other parts of the writings of Demosthenes, with no very great variations of phraseology; which is the more worthy of observation because the speech itself is singularly concise.

Nevertheless, the deductions which M. LARCHER draws from these facts seem to be carried farther than they will fairly warrant. To the first, might be returned the very old answer,

answer, "*Aliquando bonus dormitat Homerus.*" Against the second might be urged the possibility that even Demosthenes, when suddenly called forwards on the spur of the occasion, might use expressions already familiarized to his mind and tongue, which he would have rejected in a more studied composition. The third argument is supported only by two examples: the first derived from the use of the word χρῆσις in the sense of *utility*, or *advantage*; and the second resolving itself simply into a feeble mode of expression. The word χρῆσις undoubtedly signifies generally *the use* of a thing, while το χρησιμον implies the advantage resulting from it: but where is the critic who, conscious of the frequent corruptions in the text of antient authors, would allow himself to doubt whether a work was genuine because he discovered one word usurped in a sense to which he was not habituated? — The memoir terminates with instancing some confessed cases of the substitution of spurious for authentic writings which have perished. — It appears to us to be written with but little force.

[*To be concluded in another Article.*]

ART. IX. *Mélanges de Littérature et de Philosophie; &c. i. e.* Miscellanies of Literature and Philosophy in the Eighteenth Century. By the Abbé MORELLET, of the French Academy. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 2l.

THE opinions of the French nation seem to be gradually assuming an appearance favourable to religion and to royalty. In order to render odious the adherents of *Bonaparte*, they have been generally accused of atheism and republicanism; and every writer, who wishes to please at court, must now affect the opposite tincture of sentiment. To be a philosopher was once a passport to literary popularity, but it is at present almost requisite to be an *Abbé*; and the Academy itself may shortly resemble a college of Cardinals.

M. MORELLET, the author of these four volumes, has long been in some degree known to the printing world. In the year 1775, he first published a dissertation on the advantages of extending the liberty of the press to the free criticism of administrative measures; in which he pleaded with great mildness for a point which government was already decided to concede. During the Revolution, some other such pamphlets appeared; liberal in their tendency, but rather keeping behind than running before the course of the public mind. They accordingly dropped still-born from the press. Now that

that opinions are retrograding, the Abbé hopes to found a new kind of political reputation on the very caution which before impeded his celebrity; and, by shewing that he wrote as a moderate tory, to merit the gratitude of the re-established authorities. Among these political diatribes, he mingles many literary dissertations, of which we will give a short critical catalogue.

Volume I. comprehends the academic works of the author; his Discourse of Reception, his Eulogy of *Marmontel*, and his Refutation of *Chamfort*'s speech which demanded the suppression of the Academy. Of these pieces, the introductory discourse is but a dull compilation of common-places, and the eulogy of *Marmontel* is little more than a flattering chronology of his writings: but the refutation of *Chamfort* is skilfully executed, and was successful in reversing the decision of the constituted authorities of France.

The Abbé then becomes a *Reviewer*; and his second volume consists chiefly of articles progressively inserted in different periodical publications, but here first collected and acknowleged by the author. The principal works criticized are the *Philosophers*, a comedy by *Charles Palissot*; *Atala*, a novel by M. *de Chateaubriand*; the *Genius of Christianity*, and the *Martyrs*, by the same author. In all these accounts we discover many just censures, but no observations so remarkable for novelty of thought or splendor of expression as to be worth selecting. Indeed, we think that we have few English journals which would not afford to the selector a superior assortment of materials. — Some humourous papers follow; such as *When, If, and Why*, and a *Theory of Paradox*, which introduces a long and heavy attack on M. *Linguet*.

Volume III. contains various political pamphlets, which throw some light on the history of the Revolution, and on the prevailing opinions. The principal articles are thus intitled: Reflections on the Advantages of the Liberty of the Press; Advice to Constitution-makers; Observations on the word *Sovereign*; On the Exercise of Political Rights among the Romans; Letter to Marshal B—— on his Examination of the English Government; Extracts from Swift; Relation of Events which happened at Paris in September 1792; Sketch of the Common-council of Paris in September 1792; On Property, in reply to *J. P. Brissot*; On the Governments of Athens and Sparta, from the English of Mitford; Translation of Mr. Pitt's Speech on the Subsidy to be granted to foreign Powers. Of all these tracts, those only which contain any original matter (and it is of the historic rather

rather than of the argumentative kind) are the two narratives of events which took place at Paris in September 1792. At the time, only exaggerated accounts could be published, because the press was exclusively in the hands of the desperate: but the particulars here preserved throw much light on the nature and conduct of those atrocious transactions. The relation, however, is too extensive, and too shocking, to form a welcome extract.

The fourth volume consists partly of original essays, and partly of translations; among which is Dr. Gregory's *Legacy of a Father to his Daughters.* The others are thus intitled: On Conversation; On the Spirit of Contradiction; Clementiana; a Review of Godwin's Caleb Williams; On *Mariano Socini;* On the uncertainty of human Judgments; Some Grammatical and Philosophical Remarks on the Particle *on;* On the Mechanical Operation of the Spirit; On the *Cometology* of Intellect; On the Advantages of Mediocrity in Talent; a Review of Madame *de Stael's* Work on the Influence of the Passions; Apology for Philosophy; Advice to Europe; On Machiavelism; On Political Mendacity; On Expression in Music. The literary value of these lucubrations may best be shewn by a translation of the article concerning *Mariano Socini;*

"As I was seeking in *Tiraboschi's Storia della Letteratura Italiana* for some notices concerning the discovery of America, a subject which the author treats at considerable extent, I met with a notice of the life of one *Mariano,* whom I had never heard named, and of whom my readers may probably know as little as myself. After this reading, I own that I felt humiliated;—the entrenchments were forced in which hitherto my self-love had slept in quiet. I perceived that I was ignorant, in the full extent of the term; and that I had made much less of myself than a wisely directed industry might have rendered practicable. I deplored the imperfection of an education that had allowed me to lose so many of those years, during which another had laid in so vast a stock of knowlege, talent, and virtue.

"This man is *Mariano Socini.* He was born at Sienna about the beginning of the fifteenth century, and died in 1467. Behold his portrait, according to the historians of the time; of whom the principal is Æneas Silvius, afterward Pope by the name of Pius II. *Mariano,* they say, united profound learning with sound judgment and complete probity. We can scarcely hope to see again a man of erudition so vast, and of a character so amiable; skilful alike in the civil and the canon law; of admirable eloquence; well-read in history; an excellent poet, both in Latin and Italian; and in philosophy a second Plato. He understood geometry, and other branches of mathematics; played on several instruments; was a connoisseur in the fine arts; and formed his own

own estate remarkably well. While young, he excelled in running, wrestling, and dancing; to which he added a proficiency in drawing and painting, having left behind him some esteemed pictures; and he also made petty attempts at sculpture. He took delight in the study of medicine, and wrote his own language with great elegance. To these talents he united all the moral virtues; honourable and liberal, his house was usually filled, but never crouded, with accomplished guests. To protect the widow and the orphan was the object of his professional skill; and to assist the sick and the poor was the delight of his leisure. Modest in prosperity, and constant in adversity, he was dear to his fellow-citizens and to strangers; and, having given to no one any cause of complaint, he died universally honoured and lamented.'

Such was the grandfather of the celebrated Unitarian *Lelio Socini*; and it is not unlikely that the opinions, which his descendants promulgated, were first awakened in his own mind, and were traditionally preserved in his family until a convenient moment arrived for giving publicity to them. The Abbé Morellet, however, ought not to have been ignorant of the existence and merit of a man, who was properly recorded in the very popular and very accessible biographical dictionary of *Ladvocat*; and who, in common with the other members of his excellent family, is always mentioned by ecclesiastical historians. The advisers of *Bonaparte* were not ignorant of the literary force of the Socinian family, and were preparing to give an extensive establishment to their opinions in France, by amalgamating the Protestants and the Jews under a new unitarian priesthood, combined by the same presbyterian discipline. This bold innovation, for which *Villers* and others were employed to propitiate the public mind, though suspended, is probably not abandoned, and may yet be realized by the representatives of the French nation. It is felt that the people of France cannot be drilled again into Roman Catholic opinions; that an order of public instructors and a system of social religion are necessary to regularity, to probity, to domestic comfort, to convenient education, to piety, and to the decorous consecration of burials, marriages, and deaths; and it has been thought that the form of Christianity least exposed to the shafts of ridicule, which in that country have been so often directed against the absurdities of Catholic superstition, is that which was revived by *Mariano Socini*.

In one place, the Abbé Morellet has undertaken a panegyric of mediocrity; — not the mediocrity of rank and fortune, but of intellect and talent. Let him be content to have merited his own eulogy, and to have realized his own highest idea of desirable propriety: he is sanctioned by

the sacred counsels of the author of Ecclesiastes, who recommends no one to be over-wise. Certainly, we are willing to concede to his works a welcome mediocrity of extent, and a respectable mediocrity of execution.

ART. X. *Rémarques*, &c.; *i. e.* Remarks on the Affairs of the Day; by the Viscount DE CHATEAUBRIAND, Peer of France. 8vo. pp. 36. Paris. 1818.

SHORT as this tract is, it deserves attention as throwing light on a topic not a little complicated in itself, and but very imperfectly understood in England, — the state of political parties in France. Our countrymen, when travelling through that kingdom, are assailed by the most contradictory assertions; the royalists alleging that all the favours of the crown are bestowed on the revolutionists, and the latter maintaining with equal vehemence that the reign of the Bourbons cannot fail to bring back the undue privileges of the *noblesse*, and the pernicious ascendancy of the clergy. We can easily form an idea of these two great parties: but there is something less defined, and much more difficult to comprehend, in the views and conduct of the ministerialists, accused as they are of such opposite intentions, according to the quarter from which the impeachment proceeds. The fact is that the king, finding it a matter of great difficulty to stifle clamour, and to introduce harmony into a country divided by nearly thirty years of contention, has been obliged to adopt at times a course that is opposed not only to that which was expected, but to that which for a season was actually followed by him. During the year 1814, he proceeded on the plan of reconciliation, and distributed government-offices among revolutionists as well as royalists. On his second return, he took, for a time, a decided part against the former, and the latter were now in hopes that they would become the sole depositaries of the power of government: but the king's reluctance to go so far as they urged, and above all his decree of the 5th of September, 1816, which dissolved the Chambers in which they had a majority, awakened them to the painful discovery that Louis would recur, as soon as he could, to the plan of conciliation; and that he had been induced to punish certain revolutionists only for the purpose of shewing the nation that he possessed the reality of power, not with the view of confining its exercise to the favorers of royalty. A general election took place; and the ministerialists, by whom we are to understand the party holding a medium between the royalists

royalists and the revolutionists, had a majority in the Chamber of 1817, though their measures were much impeded by the large proportion of royalist-members. Ministers gained, however, several auxiliaries in the partial election in the autumn of 1817, and are on the point of receiving a farther reinforcement by the election of the present year; it being the rule in France to change a fifth part of the House of Commons annually.

'I had renounced politics,' says the Viscount DE C., 'and returned to the tranquil prosecution of historical studies, with the satisfaction that the practical knowlege acquired in my intercourse with the political world would be useful in the labours of the closet: but, in the midst of my seclusion, a foul calumny arose to suspend the action of my pen, and to withdraw me from my peaceful pursuits. If my readers will refer to a tract published only two years ago, *La Monarchie selon la Charte**, they will find that I anticipated with considerable accuracy the results which have ensued. I foretold that the enemies of the king, while affecting the greatest attachment to him personally, would attempt to cast suspicion on the princes, and would engage foreign newspapers to aid their cause. They long felt the necessity of charging the royalists with a conspiracy; and from the English papers we learned that three of our Colonels were to march their regiments from St. Cloud to Vincennes, on the day on which a great crime was to be committed. The public ought to be apprized of the existence of a secret correspondence, which has its source in Paris; a correspondence managed by men who hazard every thing except the danger of subscribing their names. They may talk of conspiracy, but conspiracies would be vain under a constitutional monarchy,—under a representative government. In an absolute monarchy, the stroke of a poignard suffices to change every thing; and, when Henry III. fell, France became at once a prey to the horrors of the League: but, under a constitutional government, the fall of a minister is decisive of nothing; and, if a prince in a state of coercion be brought to give his consent to every demand, the two Chambers still remain. Would not their voices be heard? would not acts so abominable as those that have been imputed to the pretended conspirators rouse the efforts both of peers and commons? A law would immediately restore inviolability to the sovereign, and independence to the nation; it would strike the conspirators like a thunder-bolt.'

M. DE C. forgets, in the midst of his eloquent effusions, to say whether he considers the calumnious rumours against the royalists as originating with the French ministers. If the answer be in the affirmative, we are next to ask why should not the same shafts be pointed against the independent party, who are equally vehement in their opposition to

* See Monthly Review, June, 1817. p. 218.

govern-

government? Because, says M. DE C., these men seem less obnoxious to ministers; at all events, the secret correspondence kept up between Paris and the departments, and between Paris and other countries, is in his opinion chiefly pointed at the royalists. We extract his remarks on the secret Memorial which, after having been the object of mysterious conversation for several weeks, was lately published in our news-papers.

'One of the grand engines for propagating sinister rumours about the royalists was the Secret Memorial attributed to them; a memorial connected, it was asserted, with the conspiracy, and even explanatory of its object and pretext. The writer of this memorial was said to aim at nothing less than to prevail on the foreign powers to keep their troops in France, and to overthrow the charter; the author was accused of betraying both his king and his country; and I was pointed out by name as the writer of this treasonable paper. But have those who thus vilified the best friends of the king always acted a faithful part? Did they never abandon *Bonaparte*? Did they not, during his late usurpation, forget other engagements? Where were they at that disastrous interval? Were they to be found at Ghent, in Vendée, or by the side of the Duke *d'Angoulême*? As soon as I was accused of being the author of the secret memorial, I ordered an action to be brought against the proprietors of the English paper (*the New Times*) which had been chosen by the secret correspondence of Paris as the depositary of the calumny: the firmness of my denial seems to have disconcerted my enemies, and to have made them, at an unguarded moment, publish the memorial in question. On hearing that a paper of this nature was printed, I apprehended that some frightful document had been fabricated to form a charge against the royalists; the king's Manifesto in May 1815, so eloquently written by *Lally Tollendal*, had been disfigured in that manner, as well as my report of the state of France made at the same time. I opened with trembling hands the *note secrète*, and was much surprized to find that the writer expressed himself in the language of a true patriot, disclaiming the aid of foreign troops, and repelling all idea of violating the charter. The author of the note examines five points; viz. whether France can be partitioned by foreign powers; whether the dynasty can be changed, the charter overturned, ministers brought back to royalist-principles; and, finally, whether it be desirable that the king should change his cabinet? The last of these considerations, by much the least serious in a national point of view, seems to have struck the greatest horror into our opponents. — Let not the royalists despair; they at present form the minority in the Chambers; but let all their efforts be directed to increase their numbers. The motto of the ministerialists is, "Join the revolutionists only at the last moment; the royalists never;" — let our motto be, "Join men of honour, of whatever party." We stand at present on favourable ground; it can no longer be denied that we are

cardial supporters of the Charter, and adherents to the cause of liberty; in point of number, we are stronger than the independents, and we are not greatly inferior to the ministerial members.'

This pamphlet, like the other writings of the Viscount DE C., discovers considerable powers; and, when we compare his recent and his former productions, we observe a marked improvement, the result evidently of a practical acquaintance with men and politics. The fault of his earlier labours consisted in an unlimited licence of imagination; looking at every thing through a magnifying medium, dealing in positive and absolute assertion, and admitting none of those qualifying epithets which a real experience of the world teaches to be applicable. This error is now, in part, corrected: but the faults of M. DE C., in the eyes of an English reader at least, still belong to the ardour of his constitution: he has much to learn with regard to the moderation due to his opponents; and he will never be a sound statesman until he is accustomed to judge their conduct with more deliberation and impartiality.

ART. XI. JOANNIS VAN VOORST *Oratio de commodis atque emolumentis, quæ e singulari Principum Europæorum, in Religione Christiana his temporibus profitenda, consensu sperare et augurari liceat. Publicè habita die VIII Februarii MDCCCXVII. quum tertia vice Magistratu Academico abiret.* 4to. pp. 55. Leyden. 1817.

IN addition to the common topics of congratulation or condolence, of laudatory mention or of hortatory admonition, which are usually found in an anniversary-oration like the present, the author, as the title itself shews, has more particularly expatiated on the great blessings which a late compact of sovereigns, called *The Holy Alliance*, is likely to scatter over the world. Our expectations on this subject, however, are not quite so sanguine as those of M. VAN VOORST: on the contrary, we think that, when the monarchs of the earth form holy unions, nations may well be alarmed for their civil rights and liberties. If those rulers, who are absolute, were disposed to grant liberty to their subjects, they might effect it without confederating, in the name of the Holy and Indivisible Trinity, to assist each other in all times and places. In such alliances, we cannot expect that *the real object* of the parties should be distinctly explained: for the sake of royal decorum and popular effect, it must be veiled under the captivating phraseology of Christian charity and evangelical

peace: but, in the acts of kings, which furnish the best commentary on their declarations, the words charity and peace have been too often found to mean dominion and slavery. When we turn to the soft phrases, devout genuflections, and devotional parade of this Holy Alliance, we cannot forget that the very monarchs, who set their names to this religious instrument, had already consented to rob the King of Saxony of half his dominions, to annihilate the republics of Venice and of Genoa, and to place the first under the iron scourge of the house of Austria and the second under the hated sceptre of the petty autocrat of Sardinia. When the sovereigns, who are parties to this Holy Alliance in the name of the Undivided Trinity, talk of being animated by "*the same spirit of fraternity to protect religion, peace, and justice,*" we cannot but ask of what nature that religion was which inspired them, who were strong, to trample on those who were weak? or how the spoliation of the smaller, independent states could be compatible with the principles of justice, which they so ostentatiously proclaim? The French Revolution, in the infancy of its greatness, made a loud vaunt of its *fraternizing* spirit, which was in reality only a specious disguise for the lust of aggrandizement; and perhaps we shall see that, when the contracting monarchs in this Holy Alliance talk of "the bonds of a true and indissoluble fraternity," they really mean only to stifle the liberties of mankind in their ambitious grasp.

The learned author says (p. 6.) that, from the age of Constantine, who first bore the torch which lighted princes and magistrates into the sanctuary of Christianity, all ranks and conditions have united in professing the Christian faith; and that for many ages this faith has been the common profession of European sovereigns: but when, from the age of Constantine to the present, we compare the spirit and the precepts of the faith which has been professed, with the actual conduct of the rulers of nations, how can we possibly regard this profession as any thing more than a shadow or a sound? M. Van Voorst intimates, however, that we may expect better things from the Holy Alliance; which he calls an union of the affections for the highest of interests and the best of ends. He moreover tells us that to these 'most august princes,' members of the Holy Alliance, the nations of Europe are indebted for their liberty and independence. If he had said that these personages were indebted for the preservation of their power and the security of their thrones to the vigour, the unanimity, the disinterestedness, and the zeal, with which the people of Europe so resolutely resisted, and

at last so triumphantly overturned, the tyranny of *Bonaparte*, his panegyric would have possessed more of the simple recommendation of truth. In gratitude for this deliverance, which the people effected for their monarchs, what have these rulers hitherto done for their people? Have they kindled the torch of freedom in Italy, in Germany, or in Spain? Have they not rather laboured utterly to extinguish the beneficent flame in all these states? — Have they established a free press? Have they not rather thrown every possible obstacle in the way of free discussion? Have they not employed every means in their power to fetter the free agency of intellect, and to stop the circulation of liberal opinions? — Did not the king of Prussia promise to bestow on his subjects the blessings of a representative government; and does not the execution of that royal promise seem to be *put off to the Greek calends?* Has not "the beloved Ferdinand" restored the Inquisition, and again subjected the country which so liberally bled for the preservation of his crown, to the double tyranny of the king and the priest? — If the Holy Alliance exists, do not these things co-exist; and, then, what becomes of the vaunted justice and evangelical charity of this indissoluble brotherhood of European kings?

M. Van Voorst talks, p. 8, 9., of the conflagration of Moscow, as if it had been accomplished by the immediate impulse and suggestion of the Deity: but, if the Divine agency thus favoured the Russian, might not that aid have been more beneficially vouchsafed at the battle of Borodino, when the army of *Bonaparte* might have been defeated and Moscow saved from the flames? We do not think that it is quite consistent with a reverential regard to the Divine attributes, for an enlightened theologian to call in the interposition of the Deity in order to set fire to a populous capital.

The orator then rapturously enlarges on the agency of the religious principle in the breasts of kings, during the late struggle with *Bonaparte;* the flame of which devout feeling, he says, they transfused into the minds of their subjects. We shall extract this passage in the language of M. Van Voorst, in order to furnish a specimen not only of his sentiments but of his Latinity; which is, in general, correct and perspicuous, without being elaborated into any high polish of ornament or elegance.

"*O mirandam Religionis præstantiam! O divinam ejus, rebus in adversis, ad inexspectatos cum maxime eventus vim et efficacitatem! Ea ingenui cujusque hominis, et Principum quidem primum animos mirum in modum excitavit, et tanquam ignis cœlestis vi inflammavit ad*

ad res maximas fortiter aggrediendas. Itaque Principes, antea animum plane despondentes, Deum adeunt, ejusque opem ardentissime implorant, et hunc ignem in omnes sibi subditos transferunt, eosque ea eloquentiæ vi, quæ pectoris esse solet, vehementissime impellunt et incitant, ut belli fortunam adhuc tentent et periclitentur, et conjunctis viribus in libertatem se vindicent; magnum omnino hoc opus esse atque arduum, sed volentibus nihil se difficile putare. Hoc stimulo magni brevissimo tempore exercitus tanquam ex nihilo creantur, et qui supererant, collimati omnes et exanimati, veluti vi divina erecti et confirmati, una cum cæteris, alacri animo et intrepide accurrunt, neque ante requiescere optant, quam e terris suis longe remotus et prorsus devictus sit hostis. Is quidem, dum Principes de re inchoata perficienda consilia ineirent, novum, et immensum quidem, inaudita licentia sævitiaque, contraxerat exercitum; circiter sexcenta hominum millia victricibus fœderatorum Principum copiis objicit. Horum vero in dies crescunt opes animique, et nil desperandum rati, supra id, quod vires valere viderentur, præstant et perficiunt. Sive prœlii more, sive catervatim irruentes undique repellunt, fugant, avertunt, reprimunt. Magnæ denuo eduntur strages; pervicacissimus homo, antea cœli injuriis tempestatumque vehementia percussus animoque confusus, nunc obfirmata fœderatarum gentium virtute et inexspectata pugnandi peritia percellitur; at quotidiana vel sic tamen committit prœlia, et prospera quidem subinde fortuna, sed perquam sæpe adversa et quam maxime funesta. Quo magis ille, mortalium audacissimus, resistendi furore et pacis plus semel oblatæ conditiones recusandi pertinacia, causam sustinere studet, tanto magis magisque debilitatur, et atrocissima illa prope Lipsiam pugna, quum res esset jam ad extremum perducta casum, plane frangitur. Igitur, omnibus partibus profligatus, et omni de spe decidens, denuo fuga salutem quærit, et ex alienis regionibus exturbatus, in ipsa quoque Gallia a tantis laboribus et ærumnis se reficere non potuit; quotidie ad depugnandum coactus, et continuo repulsus et cæsus, omnibus amissis, ita tandem in angustias redigitur, ut victas cogatur dare manus. Jam conditiones pacis antea superbissime rejectas sero flagitat, gratiæ victorum se committere jussus. Communis inter omnes populos fit gratulatio; omnes in tota Europa partes, exstinctis odiis et factionibus, in unum cœunt, et unanimiter laudes Dei celebrant. Magnitudo Principum hostem debellatum domat, et e conspectu hominum removet; sed vitæ tamen parcit. Res contra omnem spem evenit. Nondum annus erat; dum Principes Viennæ, domum missis copiis, de rebus Europæ digerendis adhuc deliberant, tyrannus ejectus ex improviso ab exsilio erumpit, et sociorum improborum dolis atque præstigiis adjutus, tota contremiscente et indignante Europa, sed vix quoquam obsistente et contra pugnante, denuo imperii habenas arripit; nec tamen paratam jamdiu nefandorum scelerum vindictam aufugere potuit. Principes fœderati, simili atque antea impetu incensi, Religionis et humanitatis causam, conjunctis civium militumque simili indignatione ardentium armis animisque, iterum suscipiunt, et temerarium ac ferocissimum hostem, quidquid cum sociorum perfidorum grege contra luctetur, gloriosa illa, nostris quoque copiis, earumque cum maxime Duci, Principi nostro hæreditario, perhonorifica prope vicum

cum Waterloo pugna, rursus prosternunt et plane subigunt; et his ita gestis restitutam pacem magis firmam et stabilem reddunt. E vestigio omnes denuo in templa concurrunt, et pia Deo vota læte persolvunt. Una omnium hæc vox est et sententia, quidquid bene et præclare et bono cum successu actum esset, non Principum vi et prudentia, sed Dei nutu atque arbitrio esse actum: Deo soli, vires animosque, tanquam supra id, quod humanum esset, efferenti et corroboranti, universum acceptum referri debere eventum. Et ecce Principes augustissimi, in ipsa illa sacrorum contemtrice urbe Lutetia, SANCTUM illud Religionis FŒDUS ineunt, de quo Tu, optime KEMPERE, et vere et eleganter, ut soles, ex hoc ipso ante annum loco affirmasti, "Principes Lutetiæ potissimum id videri pangere voluisse, ut saltem unum aliquid esset, quod horrorem Parisini nominis apud gentes domaret."

The notes contain the Holy Treaty, signed by the Emperors of Austria and Russia, and the King of Prussia; as also a letter from the Prince Regent of England to the Russian sovereign, (dated Carlton House, 6th October, 1815,) stating that the forms of the British constitution do not permit him directly to accede to that treaty, but that he shall ever be governed by the principles which it expresses, and co-operate with his high allies for the establishment of them.

ART. XII. *La Minerve Française*, &c.; *i. e.* The French Minerva, by MM. AIGNAN, of the French Academy; BENJAMIN CONSTANT; E. DUMOULIN; ETIENNE; A. JAY; E. JOUY; LACRETELLE, Sen.; and P. F. TISSOT. 8vo. Paris.

ART. XIII. *Le Spectateur Politique et Littéraire*, &c.; *i.e.* The Political and Literary Spectator, by Messrs. AUGER, of the French Academy; CAMPENON, of the French Academy; DESPRÈS; DROZ; LACRETELLE, Jun., of the French Academy; LOURDOUEIX; LOYSON; PARISET, and others. 8vo. Paris. 1818.

UNTIL within a few years, the French had scarcely any periodical publications on the plan of the Reviews and Magazines in this country, their news-papers being the channel for conveying the brief and partial reports of books that were given to the world: but, since the restoration of the Bourbons and the cessation of war, they have begun to imitate their northern neighbours, and have encouraged journals in the periodical form, though still different from our's, the volatile character of French readers preferring a short weekly tract to a more full and comprehensive production at the end of the month. Since the meeting of their parliament in November last, the war of pamphlets has been carried on with great keenness; and the divided state of public feeling affords, and is long likely to afford, a supply of aliment

ment to this bloodless hostility. — Of the two productions before us, the *Minerve* is of prior date; being a continuation of an old periodical work called *Le Mercure*, which formerly attended very little to politics and appeared only once in a month. The association of Parisian *literati*, whose names are mentioned in the title-page, bought the property of this venerable but fallen journal, infused new spirit into it, sent forth a number once in a week, and were soon rewarded for their exertions by a rapid increase of sale. Their principles, however, were anti-ministerial; and some unlucky sarcasms on the *Concordat* induced that formidable tribunal, the *Censure*, to stop the circulation of the *Mercure*, and to oblige the proprietors to adopt a new title: hence the name of *Minerve*, under which the journal has, we understand, prospered fully as much as before. It continues to be published every week, but on undetermined days, in order that it may be exempt from the *Censure*, which is applicable only to works that are strictly periodical. The articles are signed either with an initial or with the name of the writer at length. We extract a specimen.

A Meeting of the Academy. — 'These meetings are allotted chiefly to the reading of unpublished productions of members, and the rule is to read alternately an essay in verse and one in prose. The following is a report of one of the sittings, which take place on the first Tuesday of every month.

'M. *François de Neufchateau* began the *Séance* by reading a small poem on Tropes, which he has since published. M. *Baour de Lormiau* read a canto of a translation of the "Jerusalem Delivered," which is nearly finished, and will soon be published. M. *Parceval Grand-Maison* read a canto of an epic poem on Philip Augustus of France, which has occupied him ten years, and now approaches to completion. M. *Aignan* read fragments of a "Translation of the Odyssey;" M. *Reynouard*, a canto of a poem on the Machabees; and, finally, M. *Lemercier* a poem on Moses.

'We have here an abundance of poetical labours of the highest class; we are next to advert to the prose-essays; which were chiefly historical, that kind of reading being now in favour with the public, to the exclusion, it is to be hoped, of romances. M. *Darse* read fragments of a "History of the Republic of Venice;" M. *Charles Lacretelle* gave specimens of his "Moral Lessons deduced from Antient and Modern History;" M. *de Segur* read partial extracts from his "Course of History for Youth;" and *Lacretelle* the elder, brother of the historian, submitted to his fellow-academicians several passages of a work which will bear the title of "*Études sur le Style*," or "Essays on Composition."

'At another meeting, and one that was open to the public, M. *Biot* made a report of his late travels to the Shetland-Islands; M. *Remusat* read an abridgement of a dissertation on the different

races

races of the Tartars; and M. *Quatremère*, a member of the department of the *beaux arts*, illustrated at great length the principle that the imitation of nature could not and ought not to be an exact, but only a faithful, imitation. M. *Campenon* read a fragment of a poem on Tasso, which is perhaps the first instance of a great poet being made the subject of a poem, but the misfortunes in the career of Tasso supply ample materials.'

The ensuing passage is taken from a different part of the journal, and may serve as an exemplification of the impressions circulated by the writers in the *Minerve* with regard to foreign countries.

'Germany tends like England, we mean the sound part of England, towards a national representation of a fair and substantial kind; above a hundred petitions have already been presented on this subject to the Diet. In Saxony, the cry for reform is unanimous; men of family and men of no family are agreed on this subject.

'*Colonies.*—The name of colonies recalls the idea of servitude, and is like the prohibition of foreign goods, like the maintenance of a standing army, like many abuses which have acquired the force of law merely because they exist, and because one nation is under the necessity of keeping them up until others have relinquished them. Oh! what a subject of boast it would be for that people which should take the lead in their abolition! One nation only seems to have the power of doing this; I speak of that which holds in its hands all the liberties of the world: but it is to be feared that she will act with regard to this as with regard to liberty of another kind.'

The French have no idea of the financial difficulties under which we labour; they have felt our arms by sea and land, and they behold our General at the head of the allied troops; from all of which they infer that we have it in our power to act in matters of legislation as we chuse; without considering that, from our enormous burdens and high price of labour, we are, in point of taxation, less able to innovate than any nation of Europe.—The rival paper, the *Spectateur*, looks to England with a more friendly eye; having been established with the concurrence, perhaps under the influence, of the French ministry, whose disposition is altogether cordial towards their brother-ministers in this country. The editor of the *Spectateur* is M. AUGER, a member of the Institute, and a writer of eminence in the department of the belles lettres. M. LACRETELLE, the well-known historical writer, and author of the *History of France during the Wars of Religion* *, supplies what may be called the politico-philosophical part; while the periodical survey of foreign transactions proceeds from

* We propose to give an account of this work in our next Appendix.

the

the pen of M. LOURDOUEIX, the author of *Les Folies du Siècle* *, a kind of philosophic romance. — We proceed to give an abstract of the contents of a few numbers of the *Spectateur*.

No. 1. Answer to Lord Stanhope's Speech in February last against the French Nation.

A Dialogue on the Political Inconsistencies of M. *Benjamin Constant*.

Remarks on the lately published Memoirs of Madame *d'Epinay*. *

Theatrical, Literary, and Political Intelligence.

No. 23. Remarks on the Plan of a Loan suggested by a Writer in the *Minerve Française*.

On Criminal Justice.

A Criticism on *Lemontey*'s Historical Account of the Reign of Louis XIV.

Letter from *Robespierre* to his Jacobin Friends. (This is fictitious, and refers to the present state of parties.)

Remarks on the Trial of *Canuel*.

No. 24. Strictures on M. *de Chateaubriand*'s Pamphlet on the alleged Conspiracy. Of this publication we have given an account in a preceding page. (529.)

On the Right of Legitimacy.

On the Pledge required by the French Government from the Professors of Divinity.

In point of politics, the *Spectateur* professes to hold a medium course between the contending parties; avoiding, on the one hand, the absurdities of the ultra-royalists; and deprecating, on the other, the extremes of the revolutionists. Its arguments are founded on the evil effects of past excesses, and on the necessity of sinking all national differences in oblivion. Such has been, in a great degree, the rule of the French government during the last eighteen months; the ordonnance of 5th Sept. 1816, which dissolved the then existing parliament, being a declaration to the public that the King resorted to his people for support against the too ardent advocates of the cause of royalty. A party, however, exists in France, which maintains that ministers are not sincere in this professed attachment to liberty, and have adopted the course in question merely to govern more easily the unenlightened and unsuspecting part of the community. Without presuming to give an opinion on this weighty charge, we shall lay before our readers a few observations on a subject of great importance in France, in this her day of contribution and difficulty.

* We intend to make reports of these publications, also, in our next Appendix.

The

The Budget. — The French government found means, by borrowing from the monied interest of Paris, to delay the negotiation of the loan for the deficiency of 1817 until last May. Its amount was eight millions; and the minister of finance, M. *Corvetto*, determined to contract for it on a new plan: — he ordered books to be opened for the subscription of such sums as the contractors might chuse to offer; reserving to government the power of fixing the terms after the completion of the subscription, but giving the subscribers, in return for this extraordinary license, the option of withdrawing their proposal if the terms offered by government should not be satisfactory to them. The books were opened on the 9th of May; the first subscribers belonged to the Stock-Exchange of Paris, and were evidently men who made offers beyond their capital, and came forwards with a view of selling their stock as soon as it should yield a premium: but they were followed by a number of individuals who were likely to retain their portions of stock, if not permanently, at least for a considerable time. This circumstance and the promising aspect of the funds soon produced a host of additional subscribers; and on the 27th of May, the day for closing the lists, the amount offered was greatly superior to the wants of government. M. *Corvetto* now proceeded to act up to the terms of his proposal, and declared that the new stock should be delivered to subscribers at a sum affording them a *bonus* of nearly four per cent., the price of the day being 69. This allowance, which at first seems lavish, was founded on sound calculation; government having the prospect of soon negotiating a second and a heavier loan, so that a present sacrifice was slight in comparison of the eventual advantage. The *Minerve* having passed a censure on the conduct of ministers, it called forth the following remarks from the *Spectateur*:

"Government are blamed for thus giving away the public money: but why should they be censured when *Cassimir Perrier*, one of their most steady opponents in the Chambers, published a pamphlet on purpose to shew that the loan (to which, *par parenthèse*, he was a subscriber) ought to be made beneficial to the contracting parties? "Justice," says this persuasive gentleman, "requires that this measure should be made profitable to all who have loyally come forwards; a reasonable profit is the best guarantee for the loan." The difficulty lay in apportioning the stock among the subscribers, since it was impossible to give them so much as they had offered to take. Ministers therefore regulated the shares by the supposed property of the parties: but every one was discontented, exclaiming that he had less than his right, and that his neighbour was unduly favoured. In the extraordinary levy of 1815, when we were taxed according to our presumed property,

perty, a general murmur of over-rating was excited; here, on the other hand, every one asserted that he had more property than ministers gave him credit for possessing, and that he ought to have had a larger share of the omnium. Enough occurred to shew that, ingenious as the plan appeared, it was replete with the seeds of dissatisfaction, and ought on no account to be again adopted.

'The rise of stocks has been a matter of surprize: but the public may in general reckon on an advance after a loan is made; government having then provided for its wants for a year to come, and being pledged to acquit its engagements with punctuality.'

Such were the circumstances attending the loan in May. The contractors were all French, and realized a large profit, the loan having ever since borne a premium of six, eight, and ten per cent. A second loan became necessary in contemplation of the evacuation of the territory of France by the allied troops, it being perfectly understood that they would not withdraw unless the whole of the imposed contributions were paid up. As a provision for this heavy demand, the Chambers gave ministry, before the prorogation in May, a conditional vote of credit for 13,000,000l. sterling. In June, a rumour was circulated in Paris that the second loan had also been concluded; and the French capitalists, not having received any application, held a meeting, in which they determined to decline any offer of participation with foreign bankers. Their proceedings were published in the *Minerve*, and ministers were pressed to declare explicitly whether the loan was negociated or not: but no answer was given, except an indirect statement that it was to the Chambers and not to individuals that ministers were accountable;—a declaration from which we may infer that, though the loan, in all probability, is not concluded, the intention of the French government is to give it not to French capitalists but to foreigners, on the ground that the allied powers would be better satisfied with a security involving the responsibility of their own subjects than with that of Frenchmen. Messrs. Baring of London, and Hope and Co. of Amsterdam, are the heads of the foreign lists.

From this grave discussion on the Budget, we may now pass to some lighter topics; and the writers both in the *Minerve* and the *Spectateur* are at no loss to give a sprightly turn to their compositions.

'The obstacles,' says the *Minerve*, 'in the way of bringing the *Concordat* before the Chambers, seemed removed in the committee; and we were on the point of being favoured with a grand and stormy debate, when M. *Marcellus*, a member of the committee, announced that he had written to Rome to learn the real intentions of the Holy Father. The Pope transmitted him an answer in Latin, in which he exclaimed loudly against the organic law of the new *Concordat*, and declared that his firm intention was that

that it should undergo no change: *penitus revocatâ lege* were the very words of the brief. Imagine the surprize of the committee, when, as they sat gravely round a table, M. *Marcellus* threw this thundering document before them; the deputies stared at each other; the ministers could not conceal their rage; all arose, and left the room, and the *Concordat* was once more cast aside. M. *Marcellus* certainly acted on this occasion rather like a good catholic than a good subject; for it may well be questioned whether a member be at liberty to communicate to a foreign sovereign the secrets of a committee. It is true that his name is more Roman than French, and that Livy called a Marcellus of a former age the "sword of Rome;" a title perhaps reserved for our co-temporary by the future historian.'

In the *Spectateur*, one of the most amusing passages in the early numbers is a paper relative to *B. Constant Rebecque*, intitled a "Monologue, in the Form of a Dialogue," the speakers being Mons. *Benjamin*, Mons. *Constant*, and Mons. *Rebecque*; in other words, the same individual, characterized by a new name every time that an inconsistency occurs in his political career. This is followed by an Essay on the Correspondence of Madame *d'Epinay*; a rich morsel of private history, bearing some features of *La Chronique Scandaleuse*, and evidently introduced as a counterpoise to graver essays.

The French Chambers exhibit the singular coincidence of a double opposition; the Ultra-royalists and the Independents. This may at first seem to give double trouble to ministers, but in fact it makes their task less difficult, because their two opponents sometimes contend with each other. On one occasion during the last session, they united: but it was soon perceived that the union could not last, for nothing can be more contrary than their principles: the opposition on the left side (the Independents) leaning steadily towards the assumption of a national character, while their brethren on the right tend perpetually to detach themselves from the nation.—The Ultras muster about 60 votes in a house of somewhat more than 200 members. Their leaders are *Villèle*, *Corbière*, *Marcellus*, *Cornet d'Incourt*, and others. Their plans are prepared beforehand in a central committee; and, if their numbers have been diminished by the late elections, their spirit is by no means broken. — The Independents have not above half the number of the Ultras, but they are of great weight, partly from the activity of their leaders, and more from the respectability of the portion of the public that adheres to them. The charge of being levellers is wholly misapplied to men who possess a larger stake in the country than twice the number of deputies in any other party. Their heads are M.M. *d'Argenson*, a veteran deputy, descended from a well known family; *Bignon*,

a diplomatist, and political writer; *Dupont de L'Eure*; *Lafitte*, the well known banker, and one of the members for Paris; *Perrier*, another of the Paris members; — and, in the house of peers, the Duke *de Broglie*. The ministerial ranks contain some able speakers, such as *Lainé*, minister for the home department; *Pasquier*, minister of justice; *Courvoisier*; and *Siméon*: but they are chiefly filled with law-officers (*Procureurs* and *Avocats généraux*), legal patronage being in France much more extensive than in England. These gentlemen, says the *Minerve*, are intelligent, and probably well intentioned: but unluckily they are somewhat too much in the habit of voting with the ruling power. — Another and a minor party has of late appeared, under the guidance of *Camille Jourdan*, who made his *debut* in the time of the Directory; *Beugnot*, who was minister after the first return of the Bourbons in 1814; and *Royer Collard*, the head or chairman of the Board for superintending the University and other institutions for education. This small but increasing party keeps a middle course between ministers and their opponents; voting in most cases with the former, but dissenting whenever the measures of government seem to be at variance with fundamental principles.

These extracts and remarks will give our readers a sufficiently distinct idea of the two periodical publications which now excite most attention in France. Their circulation, we understand, is considerable; and they may, if not blinded by party-spirit, be instrumental in healing the wounds of their country, and diffusing a spirit of peace that shall be beneficial equally to France and to Europe. — Both journals are on the same plan; being chiefly composed of critical notices on new publications, with short essays on the domestic politics of France, and a few comments on the leading occurrences in the rest of Europe. Each number consists of nearly 50 pages, a large contribution to be published so often as once in a week: but the *collaborateurs* are numerous; and a part of this space is filled with essays of easy composition, we mean topographical notices, under such titles as 'A Tour in the South and West of France;' 'The Hermit in the Country,' &c.

ART. XIV. *L'Usurpateur*, &c.; *i. e.* The Usurper, or the Historical and Political Testament of Alompra, Emperor of the Birmans, in India: freely translated from the Latin of Father *Lebret*, a Portuguese Jesuit. By the Baron DE B***. 8vo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l. 10s.

OF this elaborate political romance the scene is laid in the country of the Birmans: the subjects of the king of Ava are supposed to revolt against him: their leaders determine on a repub-

a republican form of government: anarchy ensues; and the General, *Alompra*, is invited to restore order by usurping the vacant throne. His wife is esteemed and his son beloved by the people, in a degree which renders the sovereign jealous of their popularity. He therefore undertakes the conquest of a neighbouring province, forces the prince to bestow on him his daughter in marriage, repudiates his first wife, and sends his son on an odious expedition. At length, his reverses become as remarkable as his early rise; and he suddenly dies of a dysentery in the midst of an unsuccessful siege.

This is obviously, excepting the mere catastrophe, the history of *Bonaparte*, related under fictitious names, and terminated by a supposed death at the close of the Russian campaign. Many French individuals are introduced, almost by name, in the course of the narrative: thus *Mirabeau* is called *Miralaid*; and, even where such obvious allusions are omitted, it is seldom difficult to find out the person in view. *Talleyrand* is called *Chelóbai*; *Josephine* is called *Nabi-rheausa*; young *Beauharnois* is called *Namdogee-praw*; and the Austrian Princess, *Zadda*. Nevertheless, a great many fables are related of all these persons; for instance, that *Alompra* attempted the assassination of *Zadda*. Hence a calumnious mixture of fact and fiction is left in the mind; so that the bewildered memory forgets which of its likes or dislikes reposes on history, and which on falsehood. Thus the whole tendency of the work is unjust, and therefore immoral.

As for its execution; it every where displays that bloated eloquence which *Diderot*, *Saint-Pierre*, and *Chateaubriand* have introduced into the novels of Paris, and which is now considered as essential to the art of stimulating the readers in that metropolis: but, like all the works of these writers, it is too incessantly eloquent for habitual effect. Turtle-soup will not please for a whole dinner, and for every day's dinner: there must be intervals of plainer food to keep up the relish. The style of Gil Blas, though it never rises into decorated prose, not only never cloys, but delights for a longer time and more exquisitely than this pompous verbiage, this declamation imitated from the tribunes of the Convention. Surely, the French would do right, were it only for the sake of variety, to leave off their brocaded diction for a time, and try once more the forgotten effect of simplicity.

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